



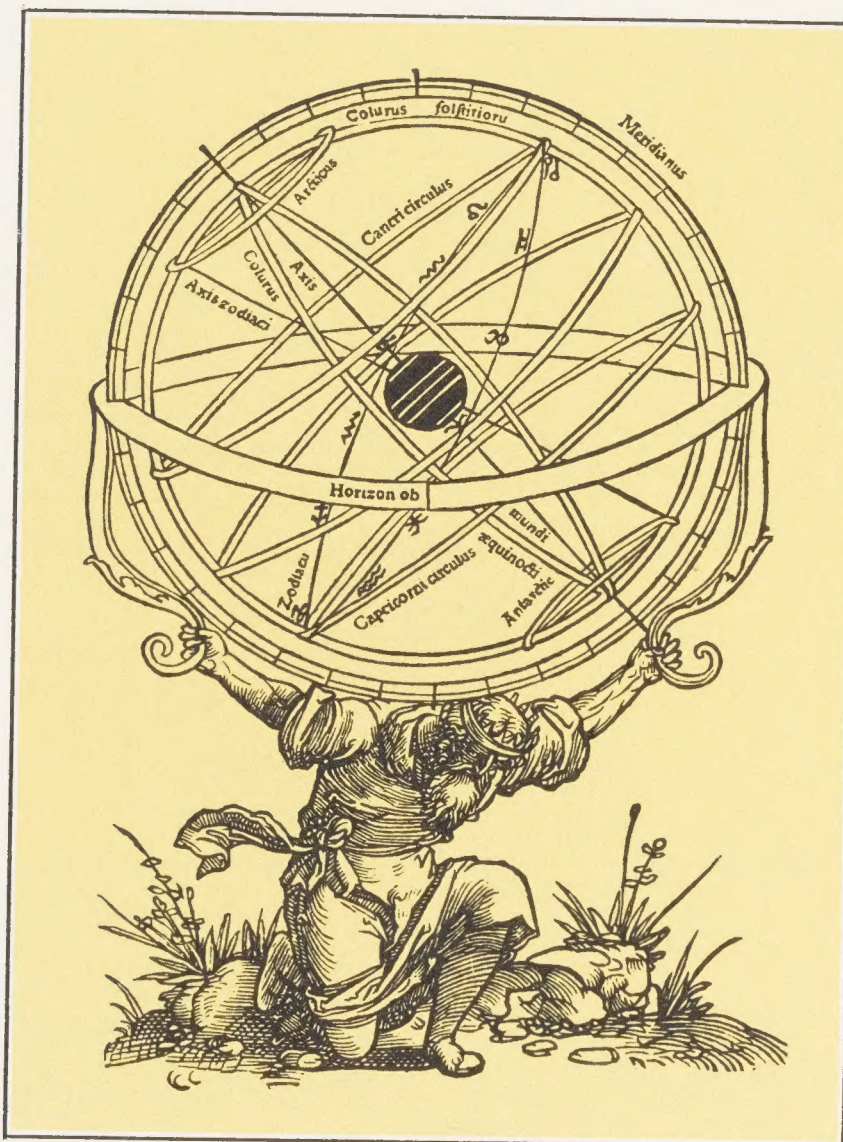
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ANALYTICAL INSTITUTIONS,

IN FOUR BOOKS:

ORIGINALLY WRITTEN IN ITALIAN,

BY

DONNA MARIA GAETANA AGNESI,

PROFESSOR OF THE MATHEMATICKS AND PHILOSOPHY IN
THE UNIVERSITY OF BOLOGNA.

TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH

BY THE LATE

REV. JOHN COLSON, M.A. F.R.S.

AND LUCASIAN PROFESSOR OF THE MATHEMATICKS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE.

NOW FIRST PRINTED, FROM THE TRANSLATOR'S MANUSCRIPT,

UNDER THE INSPECTION OF THE

REV. JOHN HELLINS, B.D. F.R.S.

AND VICAR OF POTTER'S-PURY, IN NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.

VOLUME THE FIRST,

CONTAINING THE FIRST BOOK.

To which is prefixed,

AN INTRODUCTION BY THE TRANSLATOR.

L O N D O N:

Printed by Taylor and Wilks, Chancery-lane;

AND SOLD BY F. WINGRAVE, IN THE STRAND; F. AND C. RIVINGTON, IN
ST. PAUL'S CHURCH-YARD; AND BY THE BOOKSELLERS
OF OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE.

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BY

THE EDITOR.

THE *Analytical Institutions* of the very learned Italian Lady, *Maria Gaetana Agnesi*, Professor of the Mathematicks and Philosophy in the University of *Bologna*, which were published in two Volumes, Quarto, in the year 1748, are well known and justly valued on the Continent; and there cannot perhaps be a better recommendation of them in this Island, than that they were translated into English by that eminent judge of Mathematical Learning, the late Reverend *John Colson*, M. A. F. R. S. and Lucasian Professor of the Mathematicks in the University of *Cambridge*. That learned and ingenious man, who had obliged his Country with an English Translation of Sir ISAAC NEWTON'S Fluxions, together with a Comment on that profound work, in the year 1736,—and was well acquainted with what appeared on the same subject, in the course of fourteen years afterward, in the writings of those very ingenious men, *Emerson*, *Mac Laurin*, and *Simpson*,—found, after all, the *Analytical Institutions* of *Agnesi* to be so excellent, that he was at the pains of learning the Italian Language, at an advanced age, for the sole purpose of translating that work into English; that the British Youth might have the benefit of it as well as the Youth of Italy.

This

This great design he lived to accomplish ; and had actually transcribed a fair copy of his Translation for the press, and begun to draw up proposals for printing it by subscription. And, in order to render it more easy and useful to the Ladies of this Country, (if indeed they can be prevailed upon by his persuasion and encouragement, to shew to the world, as they easily might, that they are not to be excelled by any foreign Ladies whatever, in any valuable accomplishment,) he had designed and begun a popular account of this work, under the title of *The Plan of the Lady's System of Analyticks* ; explaining, article by article, what was contained in it. But this he did not live long enough to finish, nor indeed to give more than a rough draught of it so far as article 256 of the first Book.

In this state the Manuscript remained many years ; and, considering the great expence which, in the present times, attends the printing of such a work, probably might have remained many more, had it not been for the active and liberal spirit of Mr. BARON MASERES ; who, whether we consider his own ingenious and extensive labours in the Mathematicks, or the encouragement which he gives to others who employ their talents in that way, well deserves what Sir ISAAC NEWTON said of Mr. *Collins*, the great encourager of Mathematical Learning in his time — *Vir in Rem Mathematicam promovendam natus* *. But this commendation is far short of the deserts of the Patron of this Work. While he sets a due value upon *Arts* and *Sciences*, he is highly sensible of the much greater importance of REVEALED RELIGION, and *well-constituted Government*, to the happiness of mankind ; and is no less pious and loyal than he is learned and liberal. To the truth of these assertions every one who is acquainted with him will readily bear testimony ; and they might be supported likewise by passages from various Books which

* See Comm. Epistol. Edit. 1722, p. 148.

are well known to be productions of his pen, although some of them bear not his name. But I forbear quotations from his works in this place, that I may not, on the one hand, hurt the modesty of a Friend, nor, on the other, give occasion to the captious and malevolent to say I offer incense to my Patron.

When the BARON had resolved to bear the whole of the expense of a handsome Edition of these *Institutions*, he was pleased to desire me to superintend the printing of them: to which I readily consented, in consequence of favours received from him, and with the hope that I might render some little service to the readers of this work, by taking care that it should be correctly printed, which is a matter that requires more time and attention than most are aware of, who have not experienced it.

But, besides correcting the errors of the press, it was necessary to correct many little slips of the pen, and inaccuracies, which I found in the Copy. For, notwithstanding it was fairly transcribed for the press in Mr. Colson's own hand-writing, it had evidently been written in haste, and wanted revision; and undoubtedly would have received it from him, if he had lived to superintend the printing of it himself. Of these inaccuracies, a few were in the language, but more in the mathematical part, where, although I seldom found any wrong conclusion, I found many mistakes in the signs and exponents of quantities, as well as omissions of numbers and quantities, and sometimes of whole clauses. Some of these mistakes I was enabled to correct by means of the foul sheets on which the Translation was first written; but finding errors in them also, (some of which, I doubt not, were occasioned by press errors in the original, a copy of which I could never obtain),

obtain *,) I saw no way of satisfying myself, but to undertake the labour, great as it was, of examining and recomputing every operation in which I suspected or discovered any error: and this was frequently the case in the second Volume. In short, my endeavour has been to present this Translation to the Public faithfully as the worthy old Professor made it, and would have rendered it, if he had lived to publish it; altering nothing in it but the mistakes before mentioned, nor inserting any thing of my own but what is included within these marks [].

With respect to the style of this Translation, some of the sentences, no doubt, might have been better turned; yet the meaning is, in general, plain enough, which is all that is requisite in books of this kind.

It has been mentioned above, that the Introduction was left unfinished by Professor *Colson*: I have continued it to the end of the first Volume; distinguishing what I have written from what was found in his Manuscript by putting it in brackets.

It appears by a passage in the Manuscript of the Introduction, that Mr. *Colson* intended to make some additions to this Work; but what these additions were to be is not mentioned. Yet I conjecture that they were to be some easy pleasant Questions, with their Solutions, in the manner which he has shown in Sect. VI. of his Comment on Sir ISAAC NEWTON's Fluxions; merely to exercise the learner in the rules given in these Institutions, and not to contain any new rules, or additional matter; for he has called this Work of *Agnesi*, *A Complete System of Analyticks* †. And finding a short Paper of this kind in his handwriting, I have inserted it at the end of the second Volume.

* In the year 1799, I employed two days in making inquiries amongst the booksellers of London, from one end of the city to the other, for a Copy of the Original, without success.

† See the Introduction, p. i.

That these *Institutions*, considering the great quantity of valuable matter contained in them, the judicious manner in which it is arranged, and the perspicuity with which it is explained, will be esteemed, by all candid judges, as the most valuable work of the kind that has appeared in our language, need not be doubted. Instances of the superiour skill of the Author may be found in various parts of her Work, more especially in the Fourth Book, where it appears in the construction of some fluxionary equations without a separation of the variable quantities, —in the separation of the variable quantities in others,---and in the reduction of others in which there are second and third fluxions to equations having first fluxions only. A single instance of her great skill may serve to gratify the reader, and, for the sake of brevity, is all that I shall produce in this place. It is taken from the beginning of the fifth Article of the first Section of the Fourth Book, where she shows that the equation of the fluents of $y^r \dot{y} = x^n \dot{y} + y x^{n-1} \dot{x}$ is $fny^{r+n-1} \dot{y} = x^n y^n \pm b$; which, by only writing x for y and y for x , is the solution of the equation $y^n \dot{x} + xy^{n-1} \dot{y} = x^r \dot{x}$; from which the solution of the equation $\frac{\dot{x}}{x} + \frac{\dot{y}}{y} = \frac{x^m \dot{x}}{ay^n}$ is most easily obtained. This equation is taken from page 289 of the second Volume of *Simpson's Fluxions*, (published in the year 1750,) who has there expressed his opinion, That the only case in which this equation admits of a solution “by multiplying, or dividing it, by some power or product of the quantities concerned,” is, when $n = 1$: whereas *Agnesi* has given a general solution by that method *. What is here said is only to

* I am aware that a solution of this equation has, of late, been given by several ingenious persons of this Country; which, however, some of them may see reason to revise.

prove the great skill of *Signora Agnesi*, and not with any intent to lessen the reputation of Mr. *Simpson*; for whose memory and abilities I have the highest respect, esteeming him as one of the greatest Mathematical Geniuses that this Country has produced since the time of Sir ISAAC NEWTON.

It may perhaps be objected to these *Institutions*, That there are a number of Mechanical and Physical Problems to be met with, in some Treatises of Fluxions in our language, which are not found here. The answer is, That such Problems are properly placed in Treatises of *Mathematical Philosophy*; but, as the solutions of them require a knowledge of Mechanicks, and Natural Philosophy, they could not, with any more propriety, be admitted into an Elementary Treatise of Fluxions, than the Problems of measuring Land, or of taking Heights and Distances, could be admitted into *Euclid's* Elements of Geometry.

But here I would not be understood to insinuate that these *Institutions* are so perfect as to admit of neither improvement nor addition: on the contrary, I have observed that some of the investigations might be made in a simpler manner; and that the *Methods of finding the Roots of numerical Equations by Approximation*,—*Of solving literal and fluxionary Equations by infinite Series*,---and *Of comparing together homogeneous Fluents*, are wanting in them; all which might be contained in a few sheets, and which, if added to this Work, would save the learner the expense of money and time in procuring and reading a number of books on these subjects. These Methods therefore, together with Notes on several parts of the Work, I purpose to draw up, under the title of

A Sup-

A Supplement to Maria Agnesi's Analytical Institutions; to be printed with the same type, and on the same kind of paper, as this Work; if health and leisure should permit, and if it should appear to be desired by Mathematical Readers.

The wonderful sagacity which appears in these *Institutions*, and the singular circumstance that so large a work of this kind was performed by a Lady, raised in me a wish to obtain a particular account of the Author; but the confusion and misery which have been brought upon a great part of Europe, and particularly upon Italy, by the French Revolution, have deprived me of the means of getting authentic information respecting this *Phænomenon* of Literature from the University of *Bologna*, of which she was once so bright an ornament. All the information I have been able to get of her, (besides what appears in her excellent Work, and some just encomiums on her skill which I have seen in foreign books,) I have inserted in the following pages: supposing that the reader would be no less desirous than myself of any authentic information respecting so amiable and so extraordinary a person. The account comes, indeed, by way of France; yet, as there is no visible motive for the writers of it to deviate from truth in what they have related of her, I see no reason for disbelieving it.

I have also inserted the Testimony given by Dr. *Saunderson* to the great genius and skill of Mr. *Colson*; conceiving that it might prove useful information to the junior readers of these *Institutions*.

I have only to request of the candid reader that, if, notwithstanding

the care I have taken in correcting the prefs for this Work, any errors have escaped me, (and in printing a work of this kind it is hardly possible but some will escape unnoticed,) he will correct them himself, and kindly excuse the omission.

JOHN HELLINS.

Potter's-Pury,
September 29th, 1801.

SOME ACCOUNT OF MARIA AGNESI,

THE AUTHOR OF THESE ANALYTICAL INSTITUTIONS.

IN the Appendix to the XXXIII^d Volume of the Monthly Review, pages 516 and 517, is an Account of *Maria Agnesi*, taken from one of M. *De Broffes*' Letters on Italy, which is nearly the same in substance, but not in perspicuity, with what is here printed.

' Letter X.—The account given by Monsieur De Broffes, in the 10th Letter, of a kind of literary phænomenon that he met with in this journey, is so remarkable that we cannot avoid transcribing it. This was a young lady of *Milan*, about eighteen or twenty years of age, named *la Signorina Agnesi*, whom he calls a *walking Polyglott*, and who, not content with knowing all the oriental languages, undertook to maintain a *Thesis* in any of the sciences against any one who should choose to dispute upon it with her. At a *Conversatione* to which our traveller [Monsieur De Broffes] and his nephew were invited, they found about thirty persons, of several different nations of Europe, sitting in a circle, and *la Signorina Agnesi*, with her little sister, seated under a canopy. She could hardly be reckoned handsome; but she had a fine complexion, and an air of great simplicity, softness, and feminine delicacy.'

"I had conceived (says the President *,) when I went to this conversation-party, that it was only to converse with this young lady in the usual way, though on learned subjects; but, instead of this, Count *Belloni* (who had introduced me to it,) made a fine harangue to the lady in *Latin*, with the formality of a college-declamation. She answered with great readiness and ability in the same language; and they then entered into a disputation, still in the same language, on the origin of fountains and on the causes of the ebbing and flowing which is observed in some of them, like the tides in the sea. She spoke like an angel on this subject; and I never heard it treated in a manner that gave me more satisfaction. Count *Belloni* then desired me to enter with her on the discussion of any other subject I should choose to pitch upon, provided that it related to Mathematicks or Natural Philosophy. This proposal alarmed me a good deal,

* M. *De Broffes* was first President of the Parliament of Dijon, and Member of the *Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres* of Paris. According to the Monthly Reviewer, he travelled in Italy about the year 1740: from which it follows that *Agnesi* was about 28 years of age when her *Analytical Institutions* were published.

as I found it was expected that I should hold a conversation in the Latin language, with which I had no longer that familiar acquaintance and readiness at speaking it, which in the days of my youthful studies I had formerly possessed. However, I made the lady the best excuses I could for my want of sufficient skill in the Latin language to make me worthy of conversing in it with her, and hoped she would over-look the incorrect expressions I might happen to make use of in the course of the discussion ; and we then entered, first, into an inquiry concerning the manner in which the soul receives impressions from corporeal objects, and in which those impressions are communicated from the eyes, and ears, and other parts of the body on which they are first made, to the organs of the brain, which is the general *sensorium*, or place in which the soul receives them ; and we afterwards disputed on the propagation of light and the prismatic colours. *Loppin* then discoursed with her on *transparent bodies*, and on *curvilinear figures* in Geometry, of which last subject I did not understand a word. *Loppin* spoke in French ; and the lady begged to be permitted to answer him in Latin, fearing that she should not be able to recollect the proper French technical names of the several subjects which they should have occasion to consider.

“ She spoke wonderfully well on all these subjects, though she could not have been prepared before-hand to speak upon them, any more than we were. She is much attached to the Philosophy of Sir ISAAC NEWTON : and it is marvellous to see a person of her age so conversant with such abstruse subjects. Yet, however much I may have been surprized at the extent and depth of her knowledge, I have been much more amazed to hear her speak Latin (a language which she certainly could not often have occasion to make use of,) with such purity, ease, and accuracy that I do not recollect to have ever read any book in modern Latin that was written in so classical a style as that in which she pronounced these discourses. After she had replied to *Loppin*, the conversation became general, every one speaking to her in the language of his own country, and she answering him in the same language : for her knowledge of languages is prodigious. She then told me that she was sorry that the conversation at this visit had taken that formal turn of an *Academical Disputation*, declaring that she very much disliked speaking on such subjects in numerous companies ; where, for one person who received amusement from the discussion of them, there were often twenty who were tired to death by it ; and that therefore such subjects were only fit to be entered-upon in small companies of two or three persons, who had all
the

the same taste for discussing them. This observation, I thought, was very just, and was a proof of the same good sense and discernment which had appeared in her former learned discourses. I was sorry to hear that she was determined to go into a Convent, and take the veil : which was not from want of fortune, (for she is rich,) but from a religious and devout turn of mind, which disposes her to shun the pleasures and vanities of the world. After the conversation was finished, her little sister played on the harpsichord, with the skill of a Rameau, first, some of Rameau's pieces of music, and then some pieces of her own composition, and concluded by singing some airs and accompanying her voice on the instrument."

M. *Montucla* speaks of *Maria Agnesi*, and of her *Analytical Institutions*, to the following effect, in his *Histoire des Mathématiques*, Volume II, page 171.

" Besides the foregoing Authors I ought to mention on this occasion, with much commendation, the *Analytical Institutions* of a learned Italian lady of the name of *Maria Gaetana Agnesi*, which is a work of such merit that some female mathematician of France (for we also have some ladies of that description among us,) would have done well to give us a French translation of it. We cannot behold without the greatest astonishment a person of a sex that seems so little fitted to tread the thorny paths of these abstract sciences, penetrate so deeply as she has done into all the branches of Algebra, both the common and the transcendental, or infinitesimal. She has since retired to a cloister : and, though we do not presume to censure her conduct in this step, (which we must suppose to proceed from the purest and sincerest piety,) we cannot but lament that she should have thus deprived the learned world of the useful improvements in Literature which her genius and knowledge would have enabled her to communicate to it, not only on subjects of a mathematical nature, but on many others of a different kind, in which she had become eminent."

In the Index to the Volume above mentioned, M. *Montucla*, at the name *Agnesi*, refers also to the third Volume of his work, which is not yet published.

Maria Agnesi and her *Analytical Institutions* are mentioned also in a note in page 179 of a work intitled " *An Essay on the Learning, Genius, and Abilities of the Fair-Sex : proving them Not Inferior to Man, from a Variety of Examples, extracted from Antient and Modern History.* Translated

lated from the Spanish of ' *El Teatro Critico*.' London 1774." What is there said of her is to the effect following:

"A learned Italian lady of our own times is *Signora Agnesi* *, daughter of a creditable tradesman in Milan, famed throughout all Europe for her knowledge of the learned languages and for being the author of a profound treatise of Algebra, intitled *Analytical Institutions*, which, besides many eulogiums bestowed on her by several Scientifical Societies, has gained her a Professorship of Mathematicks in the University of Bologna. Neither her inclination to these favourite intellectual pursuits, nor a desire of preserving and increasing the fame she had acquired by her attainments in them, nor the intreaties of her father have been able to stifle the call from heaven which she conceives herself to have felt in her child-hood to dedicate herself to a monastick life amongst the nuns known by the name of *The Blue Nuns*, than which there are few orders in the Church of Rome subject to rules of greater severity. Since her father's death she has given herself up to the most sublime devotion, and has sacrificed to christian self-denial all those enjoyments in the society of the world to which her fine qualities and literary attainments had already introduced her amongst the most respectable part of mankind."

DR. SAUNDERSON'S TESTIMONY OF THE GENIUS OF MR. COLSON.

DR. NICHOLAS SAUNDERSON, *Lucasian* Professor of the Mathematicks in the University of Cambridge, and Fellow of the Royal Society, speaking of Mr. Colson in his *Algebra*, Vol. II. p. 720, has these words:

—"The learned Mr. John Colson, a gentleman whose great genius and known abilities in these sciences I shall always have in the highest admiration and esteem."

Mr. *De Moivre* also has, on several occasions, spoken of the great skill of Mr. Colson; but, for want of books, I cannot quote his words. However, Dr. *Saunderson's* Testimony, and the office which Mr. Colson afterward held in the University of *Cambridge*, are sufficient vouchers of his ability.

* In the Note above referred to, which seems to be a bad translation of a passage in a book intitled ' *Observations sur l'Italie*, &c,' her name is erroneously printed *Anglese*. I have therefore given the same Account in better English, as it was communicated to me by Mr. *Baron Maseres*; to whom also I am obliged for all the rest that is here printed concerning this very extraordinary person.

J. H.

THE

THE AUTHOR'S DEDICATION.

TO

HER SACRED IMPERIAL MAJESTY,

MARIA TERESA OF AUSTRIA,

EMPRESS OF GERMANY, QUEEN OF HUNGARY, BOHEMIA, &c. &c.

AMONG the various arguments I revolved in my mind, inducing me to hope, that Your Sacred Majesty, according to your great condescension, would vouchsafe to receive favourably this Work of mine, which is proud to shelter itself under your august name, and humbly to crave your gracious patronage and protection; among all these arguments, I say, none has encouraged me so much as the consideration of your sex, to which Your Majesty is so great an ornament, and which, by good fortune, happens to be mine also. It is this consideration chiefly that has supported me in all my labours, and made me insensible to the dangers that attended so hardy an enterprise. For, if at any time there can be an excuse for the rashness of a Woman, who ventures

to aspire to the sublimities of a science, which knows no bounds, not even those of infinity itself, it certainly should be at this glorious period, in which a Woman reigns, and reigns with universal applause and admiration. Indeed, I am fully convinced, that in this age, an age which, from your reign, will be distinguished to latest posterity, every Woman ought to exert herself, and endeavour to promote the glory of her sex, and to contribute her utmost to increase that lustre, which it happily receives from Your Majesty; who, having diffused, on all sides, the fame and admiration of your actions, have obliged Mankind to apply to you, with much greater reason, what has been said of some of the antient Cæsars;—that, by the justice and clemency of your Government, you are an honour to human nature, and a near resemblance of the divine. To those who, zealous for the glory of our sex, shall faithfully transmit to posterity the memory of your deeds; to those (I say) I must leave to commemorate, how each accomplishment of the mind is united in Your Majesty with the most engaging gracefulness of person; to those I shall leave the arduous task to describe, the strength of your understanding, the extensiveness of your genius, but, above all, that signal fortitude, that invincible courage and constancy of mind, by which you derived fresh vigour, as it were, from your perils and persecutions themselves; and, after having been so severely tried by the hand of Providence at the beginning of your reign, gave at last so happy a reverse to your affairs. Neither will they fail to celebrate the engaging sweetness of your temper, your humane and compassionate disposition, nor that generous condescension with which, amidst the hurry and tumult of
4 arms,

arms, you cherish and protect the arts and sciences; being duly sensible how greatly these redound to the public welfare; and that by these the minds of men are forcibly excited to the pursuit and practice of every social virtue. Hence it was, that the Sciences so early took possession of your mind, and that you became well acquainted with the whole circle of them. And though the busy cares and interruptions of Empire may have withdrawn you from your more studious applications, (Heaven having thought it too small a commendation for you, to be called the most knowing and learned Woman of your age,) yet still your love of truth is not the less fervent; so that whoever employ themselves in the search of it, are sure to meet with distinguishing marks of your approbation.

Vouchsafe, therefore, Madam, to cast a favourable eye on this Performance of mine, not only as a Work which comprehends the highest attempts of the human understanding, but also as the greatest tribute it was in my power to offer, to the glory of your auspicious reign; a reign which seems to revive the memory of former heroines, only to render your magnanimity, prudence, and good fortune, the more eminently conspicuous by the comparison. And if the Volume of Music, which my Sister has had the honour of presenting to Your Majesty, has been so fortunate as to excite your voice to melodious accents; let this be so happy as to have the desired effect, of employing sometimes the sagacity and penetration of your understanding. As nothing more remains, but to implore of Heaven a long and happy continuance of your glorious reign, for the felicity of the many nations subject to your command; I

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therefore

therefore prostrate myself, with all humility, at the foot of your
Throne, and am

Your Majesty's

most humble,

most obedient,

and faithful servant,

MARIA GAETANA AGNESI.

THE AUTHOR'S PREFACE

TO

THE READER.

THERE are few so unacquainted with Mathematical Learning, but are sensible the Study of Analyticks is very necessary, especially in our days; they cannot but be apprized what improvements have already been made by it's means, what are still making every day, and what may be yet expected in time to come. For which reason I shall not amuse myself with making unnecessary encomiums on this science, which stands in no need of any such recommendations, and much less of mine. But, notwithstanding the necessity of this science appears so evident as to excite our youth to the earnest study of it; yet great are the difficulties to be overcome in the attainment of it. For it is very well known, that persons able and willing to teach it are not to be found in every city, at least not in our Italy; and every one that would be glad to learn has not the means of travelling into distant countries, in quest of proper masters. This I know by my own experience, as I must ingenuously confess; for, notwithstanding the strong inclination I had to this science, and the great application I made use of to acquire it; I might still have been lost in a maze of inextricable difficulties, had I not been assisted by the secure guidance and sage direction of the very learned Father *Don Ramiro Rampinelli*, Monk of the Olivetan Order, and now Professor of

the Mathematicks in the Royal University of *Pavia*; to whom I acknowledge myself indebted for what little progress I may possibly have made in this kind of study; on whose deserved praise I shall forbear to insist, it being unnecessary to a person of his fame and merit, and offensive to his known, but perhaps too rigid, modesty. True it is, the aforeaid inconvenience may, in some measure, be removed, by having recourse to good books, written with perspicuity, and (what is above all) in a proper method. But though what relates to the subject of Analyticks may have already been treated of, and is to be found in print; yet as these pieces are scattered and dispersed in the works of various authors, and particularly in the *Leipsic* Acts, the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at *Paris*, and in other foreign Journals; so that it is impossible for a beginner to methodize the several parts, even though he were furnished with all the books necessary for his purpose: this consideration induced the celebrated Father *Renau* to publish that most useful Work, intitled *L'Analyse démontrée*, a work deserving the highest commendation. After which, I am very sensible, that these Institutions of mine may seem, at first sight, to be needless, so many learned Men having thus amply provided for the occasions of the Public. But, as to this point, I desire the candid reader to consider, that, as the Sciences are daily improving, and, since the publication of the aforementioned book, many important and useful discoveries have been made by many ingenious writers; as had happened likewise to those who had written before them: Therefore, to save students the trouble of seeking for these improvements, and newly-invented methods, in their several authors, I was persuaded that a new Digest of Analytical Principles might be useful and acceptable. The late discoveries have obliged me to follow a new arrangement of the several parts; and whoever has attempted any thing of this kind must be convinced, how difficult it is to hit upon such a method as shall have a sufficient degree of perspicuity, and simplicity, omitting every thing superfluous, and yet retaining all that is useful and necessary; such, in short, as shall proceed in that natural order, in which
consists

consists the closest connexion, the strongest conviction, and the easiest instruction. This natural order I have always had in view ; but whether I have always been so happy as to attain it, must be left to the judgment of others.

In the management of various methods, I think I may venture to say, that I have made some improvements in several of them, which I believe will not be quite devoid of novelty and invention. To these the judicious Reader may give what weight he pleases. It was never my design to court applause, being satisfied with having indulged myself in a real and innocent pleasure ; and, at the same time, with having endeavoured to be useful to the Public.

In the Second Volume, in which I treat of the Integral Calculus, or what is also called the Inverse Method of Fluxions, the Reader will meet with a speculation entirely new *, and no where before published, concerning *Multinomials*. For this I am indebted to the celebrated Count *James Riccati*, a gentleman who has greatly deserved of every branch of literature, and whose merit is well known to the learned world. He was pleased to communicate this to me, which I take as a favour beyond my deserts ; and for which both the Public and myself are bound to give him our thanks.

To conclude : As it was not my intention, at first, that the following Work should ever appear in public ; a work begun and continued in the *Italian* tongue, purely for my own private amusement, or, at most, for the instruction of one of my younger Brothers, who possibly might have a taste for mathematical studies ; and as I had not determined to send it abroad till after it was pretty far advanced, and had grown to the size

* It does not appear to me, that any thing can be done by this new method, which may not be done as well, or better, without it.

J. H.

of a just volume; then I thought I might be excused the trouble of translating it into Latin, (a language which some may imagine is more suitable to works of this nature,) especially as I had the example of so many famous Mathematicians, as well Italians as others, who have published their Mathematical Works in their own mother-tongues. Nor could I easily overcome my natural indolence, in submitting to the drudgery of translating that into Latin which I had already composed in *Italian*. Far am I therefore from laying the least claim to any merit arising from that purity and elegance of style, which in subjects of a different nature may be laudably attempted; being fully satisfied if I have always expressed myself, as I sincerely endeavoured, in a plain, but clear and intelligible manner.

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THE PLAN

OF

THE LADY'S SYSTEM OF ANALYTICKS.

INTRODUCTION.

THAT we should receive from Italy, the Mother of Arts, a complete System of Analyticks, is not so much to be wondered at; knowing we have often had from that quarter very excellent productions in the sublimer Mathematicks. But, that we should receive such a present from the hands of a Lady; from that sex which, however capable, yet hardly ever amuse themselves with these severer studies; is, indeed, very wonderful and surprising. Yet so it is in fact: a very learned, ingenious, and celebrated Lady of *Milan*, by name *Donna Maria Gaetana Agnesi*, a member of the University of *Bolonia*, and lately advanced by the Pope to a Professorship in Mathematicks and Philosophy in the same University, has published a Treatise in Italian, in two volumes *quarto*, which she calls *Analytical Institutions for the Use of the Youth of Italy*; of which she was pleased to present a Copy to the Royal Society of *London*. This Copy I had the curiosity to inspect, and thought it might be a proper way of returning the Author's compliment, to have an Account of the work drawn up and read to the Society, and perhaps printed in the Philosophical Transactions, as has often been the practice on such occasions. This Account, therefore, I undertook to draw up, having the consent and approbation of our worthy President. But when I came to look into the work more closely, I soon enlarged my scheme;

and, instead of barely taking the Plan, or giving an Account of it, I thought it highly deserved to be translated into our own language, that the Youth of *England* might likewise enjoy the benefit of it. This determined me then to attempt it's translation, though I well knew how unequal I was to the task. I confess I also entertained some distant hopes, that it might excite the curiosity of some of our *English* Ladies; that it might raise an emulation in them, a laudable ambition to promote the glory of their country, with a generous resolution not to be outdone by any foreign ladies whatever. They want no genius or capacity for the sciences, and have undoubtedly as good abilities as the Ladies of *Italy*. They seem only to want to be properly introduced into these studies, to be convinced of their usefulness and agreeableness, and to prevail on themselves to use the necessary application and perseverance. They have here a noble instance before them, of what the sex is capable to perform, when their faculties are exerted the right way. And they may be fully persuaded, that what one lady is able to write, other ladies are able to imitate, or, at least, to read and understand. With not much more pains and industry than what they must be at, to be expert at Whist or Quadrille, they may become mistresses of this science; which they will find to be much more innocent, more diverting and agreeable, and to have infinitely more amusing variety than those, or any other games whatever. Indeed, this is rather to be esteemed a game, or a diversion, than a study; but then it is a game of skill, without any mixture of chance, like Chess and some other ingenious games: and parties of two, or more, may play at it together, by proposing curious questions to one another alternately, to their great diversion and improvement. The games of Whist, Quadrille, Back-gammon, &c. and all other games in which chance predominates, but skill is also required to convert the events of chance to the best advantage; these are only particular cases of this general game or art, and ought always to be regulated by it. For, in all instances, Analyticks may be used to discover the odds, or degrees of probability, which are for, or against, the happening of any particular event, and so the chance may be made equal on all sides, notwithstanding a superiority of skill on one side. And thus all games of chance may be made fair and equal; and the well-meaning gamester will not be imposed on by sharpers, who, by much observation, rather than by skill in Analyticks, always know what they call the best of the lay, or always have the odds on their side.

But this is the least recommendation of this science. The improvement of their minds and understandings, which will necessarily arise from hence, is of much greater importance. They will be inured to think clearly, closely, and justly; to reason and argue consequentially, to investigate and pursue truths which are certain and demonstrative, and to strengthen and improve their rational faculties. Now that these, and all other readers, may attain these advantages with as little trouble as possible, I shall endeavour to draw out the Plan of this Work at full length, and in a popular manner, inserting some useful Observations to explain the Art itself; so that the Work, when published, may be easily read and apprehended, by such as will peruse it with the necessary diligence and attention.

The subject of the Work is Analyticks, or the general Science of Computation or Calculation. That is, the Art of resolving all kinds of Mathematical Questions, by finding or computing unknown numbers, or quantities, by the means of others that are known or given. These computations are performed either by common numbers, and then the science is called *Arithmetick*: or by general numbers or arbitrary symbols of quantities, which are commonly the letters of the alphabet, and then it is usually called *Algebra*: or by lines and geometrical figures, which are likewise the symbols of quantities, and then it is called *Geometry*: or, lastly, by all these conjunctly and indifferently, and then it will properly be called *Analyticks*. All these sciences our Author teaches and explains promiscuously, but in good order and method, at least the higher and more difficult parts of them; for she requires, as very reasonably she may, that the learner should come prepared with a pretty good stock of common *Arithmetick*, with a competent knowledge of the first elements of *Geometry*, and with some insight into the simpler properties of the Conic Sections. These are acquisitions with which they may be easily furnished out of the common mathematical books on these subjects; which will then prepare the way for an easy access to her sublimer speculations. Now, to enter upon our intended Plan. The Author divides her subject into two Tomes, or Volumes; in the first of which she treats of the common, ordinary, and finite quantities, and their representatives, whether numbers, general symbols, or lines. In the second Volume she explains the nature of what she calls *Infiniteimals*, or infinitely small Quantities; proves their comparative existence, and shows their use and application.

application. This is the grand division of the whole Work, which is again divided into four *Books*, and every Book is subdivided into it's number of *Sections*, according to the nature of the several subjects they treat of. Lastly, there is a further subdivision of the Sections into *Articles*, which are numbered without interruption from the beginning to the end of each Book, and which we shall also observe and enumerate in our explications of them.

P L A N.

THE first Section of the first Book is concerning the primary Notions and Operations of the Analysis of finite Quantities; in which are contained the following Articles. After a short Preface concerning the nature of Analysis, the Author observes,

1. That it's operations are the same as those of common Arithmetick; this operating with numbers, and that with species, that is, with symbolical numbers or quantities. By which means Algebra has great advantages over Arithmetick; for, in this, the steps of the operations will be confounded and lost by the subsequent ones, but in Algebra they may be preserved, as they are often not actually performed, but only insinuated by proper symbols; it is also more universal, and works indifferently with known or unknown quantities.

2. Here the distinction of positive and negative numbers, or quantities, is explained. Negative quantities are not in nature, but depend only on the manner of conceiving them. They are merely artificial, and introduced to save needless repetitions and distinctions, by which we can consider the opposite operations of Addition and Subtraction under one general view and comprehensive idea. In Geometry, they are represented by lines drawn opposite ways. If positive lines proceed to the right-hand, then negative ones will be to the left, with the same direction; or if positive ones are upwards, then negative will be downwards.

Then

3. Then different affections of quantities are distinguished, or denoted, by the signs $+$ or $-$, *plus* or *minus*, placed before them; whether the quantities are represented arithmetically, or by common numbers; or else algebraically, by representative numbers, that is, by the letters of the alphabet: *plus* being the mark of Addition, and *minus* of Subtraction. And the sign \pm and \mp are ambiguous, but contrary to each other. The equality of quantities is denoted by the mark $=$, and majority or minority by the marks $>$ or $<$. Proportion, or equality of ratios, by $::$, and infinitely great by ∞ .

4. Quantities are *simple* that are not connected by the signs $+$ or $-$, and *compound* when they are: of which examples are proposed by the Author.

5. Then is taught the addition of simple quantities being integers, and explained by a sufficient number of examples: also, the use of numeral co-efficients is shown.

6. Likewise, the subtraction of simple integral quantities is taught, in which it is shown that the sign of the quantity to be subtracted must always be changed, and the reason of it, together with examples.

7. Next the Author proceeds to the multiplication of simple quantities, being integers, whether they are positive or negative. Then the product will be represented by the connection of the several factors, and their co-efficients without any sign between them. And if the factors are positive and negative promiscuously, like signs will always produce $+$, and unlike signs $-$. This she demonstrates from the nature of proportion.

8. And whereas raising of *powers* is a case of multiplication; she shows how simple powers are formed, and conveniently expressed by their *indices*, or *exponents*, annexed to the roots.

9. These powers are distributed into *squares*, *cubes*, *biquadrates*, &c.; that is, into second, third, fourth, &c. powers, of which the given number, or *root*, is always the first power; and they are marked by the exponents 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. respectively. Their signs are always known by the general rule aforegoing.

10. Then

10. Then comes division of simple quantities, being integers, which is just the reverse of multiplication, and resolves, or decomposes, that which the other had compounded; as by the examples.

11. When common letters or quantities are rejected, and the division can proceed no further, it must be insinuated, by making a fraction of what shall remain.

12. When the signs of the dividend and divisor are the same, the sign of the quotient must be positive; but when those signs are different, the sign of the quotient must be negative. This proved from the nature of proportion.

13. Whence, in fractions, it is indifferent how the signs are changed in the numerator and denominator, provided the sign of each is changed into its contrary.

14. The roots of simple quantities will be extracted, by dividing their exponents by the number which denominates the root to be extracted. As, by 2 for the square-root, by 3 for the cube-root, and so on.

15. If any even root is to be extracted, the sign of that root will be ambiguous; but if an odd root is to be extracted, the sign of that root will be the same as of the given power.

16. When roots are surd, and cannot be extracted, they are to be insinuated by radical signs or characters.

17. From these operations belonging to simple quantities, the Author proceeds to those of compound quantities, or such as consist of several simple quantities, connected by the signs $+$ and $-$. Thus, Addition will be performed by setting down all the given quantities together promiscuously, and then abbreviating the sum as much as may be, and expunging equivalents with contrary signs.

18. In Subtraction, all the signs are changed of the quantity to be subtracted, and the remainder, or difference, so found is to be abbreviated as much as may be done.

19. Mul-

19. Multiplication of compound quantities, being integers, depends on the multiplication of simple quantities; and the process is much like the same operation in common Arithmetick, as the examples show.

20. But it is often convenient only to insinuate this multiplication, without actually performing it. And that is done by drawing a line, or *vinculum*, over the several factors, and connecting them by putting the mark \times , signifying *Multiplied by*, between them.

21. The powers of compound quantities, as well as of simple, need not always be actually formed, but may often be conveniently insinuated, by a *vinculum* placed over the root, and a proper index annexed to it. How these powers may be actually formed, when occasion requires, is here shown.

22. The Author presents us with a general Canon, (being Sir *Isaac Newton's* Binomial Theorem,) for raising any binomial quantity, or even multinomial, to any power required; which she exemplifies by a sufficient number of examples.

23. The Author proceeds to division of compound quantities, being integers, of which she makes three cases. The first is, when the divisor is simple and the dividend compound, and the second is on the contrary. These are easily reduced to the foregoing rules.

24. The third case is, when both the dividend and divisor are multinomials, and therefore requires a more prolix process. In order to which, the terms of each are to be disposed according to the dimensions (or powers) of some particular letter contained in them; that is, they are to form numbers belonging to a scale, of which that letter is the root, just as we do in our common Arithmetick, the root of which is ten, and the numbers are disposed according to the dimensions of that root. Then the process of division must be performed much after the manner of the like process in numbers, and which is sufficiently explained by the examples produced. When the dividend cannot be intirely exhausted, the quotient must be completed by adding a fraction to it, as in common Arithmetick.

25. The Author proceeds to the extraction of the roots of compound quantities, being integers, and first of the square-root. The terms of the given quantity,

quantity are to be disposed, as before, in Division; and the process of extraction will be nearly as the same operation in numbers. Indeed, her process is something different in form from the common one, but is very intelligible, and comes to the same thing. Her examples make it very clear. When the root is surd, and therefore cannot be extracted, it must be insinuated by a quadratick vinculum.

26. The process of the extraction of the cube-root is much after the same manner, only more operose, as being a more complicate operation. The examples render it as plain as the nature of the thing will admit.

27. The biquadratick, or fourth root, is extracted in the same manner.

28. The fifth root, and all higher roots, may be extracted, by forming rules for them, which are found by raising a binomial to the same power. For the like was done in forming rules, by which the square and cube-roots have been extracted.

29. The Author then proceeds to the algorithm of fractions simple and compound; observing that any quantity may be converted into a fraction with a denominator given, if it be multiplied into that denominator: of which she produces several instances. For this see the Examples.

30. Then comes the reduction of fractions to more simple expressions, when that can be done, which it is not always easy to perceive. When the numerator and denominator are each multiplied by the same quantity, whether simple or compound, they may each be divided by it again, and a new fraction will arise equivalent to the former. And so *toties quoties*. This will be a very useful reduction; for, in all our calculations, we should always study to abbreviate as much as possible. See the Examples. How these common divisors may be found we shall be taught afterwards.

31. Then is taught reduction of fractions to a common denominator, which in two fractions is performed by the cross multiplication of each numerator into the denominator of the other, as by the examples. And so two by two, if there are more, till all are reduced.

32. This

32. This prepares the way for the addition and subtraction of fractions; for, if they have not a common denominator, those operations can only be insinuated, by writing them after one another with their proper signs. But, when reduced to a common denominator, their numerators may then be added or subtracted, to compleat these operations; as by the examples.

33. The multiplication of fractions requires no such preparation, but is performed directly, by multiplying the numerators together for a new numerator, and the denominators together for a new denominator. The product, or fraction thence arising, may often be reduced by some of the foregoing methods.

34. Division of fractions is reduced to multiplication, by multiplying the dividend by the reciprocal of the divisor; which reciprocal is, when the numerator and the denominator change places. The quotient thus found will often have occasion for some reduction, as by the examples may be seen.

35. As for the extraction of the roots of fractions, whether it be the square-root, the cube-root, &c. the said roots must be extracted severally out of the numerator and denominator, and the fraction thence arising will be the root of the fraction given. But when such root cannot be extracted, it must be insinuated by placing a radical vinculum before the given fraction, as by the examples.

36. To conclude the Doctrine of Fractions, the Author proceeds to a very curious and useful operation, which is, to find the greatest common divisor of two quantities or formulas given. Where it may be observed, that a formula is a combination of quantities, which may serve as a paradigm, or pattern, for all combinations of the like kind. Then, by a process not unlike that in Arithmetick, which is, by subtracting one from the other continually and interchangeably as often as can be done, the last quantity so found will be the greatest common divisor of the two given quantities. Now, if those two quantities form a fraction, and the numerator and denominator are each divided by the greatest common divisor so found, a fraction will thence arise equal to the other, but reduced to the smallest terms. Of this reduction the gives us the process at large, in three several instances.

37. The Author goes on then to the Doctrine of Surds or Radicals, which are such quantities whose roots cannot be extracted, yet may often admit of a partial extraction, or may be reduced to simpler expressions; as by the examples may appear.

38. The reduction of different radicals to radicals with the same index, will be performed by finding the least number for a common exponent, by which the given exponents may be divided. Then each radical must be raised, if necessary, till it arrives at that exponent. The examples make it plain.

39. Addition and subtraction of radicals is easily performed, by writing them one after another with their proper signs, and then abbreviating when it may be done.

40. Radical quantities are multiplied by those that are rational, by prefixing the rational to the radical, with such sign as the Rule of Multiplication requires. And when they are complicate, their product will be found by the same rule.

41. Radicals of the same denomination, or reduced to such, are multiplied by putting their product under the same radical vinculum.

42. If the radicals are affected by rational co-efficients, their product must be put before the radical so found.

43. When like quadratick radicals are multiplied into each other, the radical sign will be taken away, and the product will often become rational. Several examples of this are exhibited.

44. A rational co-efficient to a radical may at any time be made to pass under the radical vinculum.

45. The multiplication of radicals of different kinds may be insinuated, or they may be reduced to the same kind.

46. Division of radicals of the same kind is performed by leaving out the radical quantity, and dividing the co-efficients only.

47. If the radicals are of the same kind, but not of the same quantity, the quantities under the vinculum may be divided, and the quotient put under the same vinculum.

48. But

48. But if the radicals are different, they may be reduced to the same exponent, and then divided as before. And thus complicate quantities may be divided as in common Division.

49. Then the Author gives us a Rule for extracting the square-root of quantities any how compounded of rational and irrational quantities, and those either numeral or algebraical; which she applies to several examples.

50. In order to the calculation of powers, which are expressed by integer exponents; from any root she forms a geometrical progression of it's powers, beginning from unity, and ascending one way by positive exponents, and descending the other way by negative exponents, to show the correspondence there is between the increasing powers and their affirmative exponents, and the decreasing powers and their negative exponents. Then observes, that when any power is in the denominator of a fraction, it may be made to pass into the numerator, and *vice versa*, by only changing the sign of the index.

51. Then, as fractional powers, or roots, are certain intermediate terms, between the integral powers in the foregoing geometrical progression; so their exponents must be corresponding intermediate terms in the arithmetical progression. And this will obtain in the descending progression as well as in the ascending, and whether the terms are simple or compound.

52. Hence the multiplication or division of powers will easily be performed by their exponents. For, to multiply them, we must add their exponents; and to divide them, we subtract the exponent of the divisor from that of the dividend. This she proves from the nature of proportion.

53. Hence the raising of powers, or extracting the roots of any powers, will easily be performed by their exponents. For the index of any power must be multiplied by the index of the power to which it is to be raised; and the index of the given power is to be divided by the index of the root to be extracted.

54. And this obtains as well in compound quantities as in simple. For all which reductions see the Examples.

55. Another useful operation follows, which is that of finding all the linear or simple divisors of any given number or formula; or to resolve a compound quantity

quantity into the several quantities of which it is, or may be, compounded by multiplication. The process is exemplified and illustrated both in numbers and species. Indeed, if this could always be done in numbers, it would amount to a very valuable discovery, or desideratum in Analyticks, which is, a method of resolving a given compound number into the prime numbers of which it is compounded; but though it is only a tentative method, yet, however, it is very useful.

56. This is extended to any compound formula, or to a number expressed by an indefinite root in an arithmetical scale, which may have been formed by the multiplication of several binomial factors. By this method such a number may again be resolved into its factors, by the help of the foregoing operation. And if the number of trials to be made should happen to be too great, the Author shows a method of reducing them to a smaller number, which is, by changing the root, and so exhibiting the given formula by another scale.

57. Now, if the first term of the given formula should happen to have a numeral co-efficient, it may be convenient (by substitution) to change it into another formula, or to express it by an equivalent root of another scale, the co-efficient of the first term of which shall be unity.

BOOK I. SECT. II.

Of Equations, and of Plane Determinate Problems.

58. HAVING explained the first principles or operations of Analyticks in the foregoing Section, our Author proceeds to the grand instrument of the art of computation, which is equation. This is either when some of the terms placed before the mark of equality, are collectively equal to all the terms on the other side, called the *homogeneum comparationis*; or when the whole are one side, and equal to nothing on the other side; insinuating that the affirmative and negative are equal, and so destroy one another. She explains likewise what is meant by the law of *homogeneity*.

59. She

59. She tells us what a *Problem* is, and what is the distinction between the *data* and *quæsitæ* of a problem.

60. Problems are divided into *determinate* and *indeterminate*, of which she gives instances from Geometry. But in this Section she treats only of such as are determinate.

61. Here it is explained how equations are formed, from the dependance of quantities upon one another, whether they are known and given quantities, or unknown and required. The instances are taken from the properties of lines and figures.

62. How we are to argue from the given conditions of the question till we come to an equation between the quantities given and required. This is explained geometrically, and by an abstract arithmetical question.

63. No more given quantities are to be assumed than are necessary, when they can be expressed by the known properties of the figure.

64. It will often happen, that the lines given in a figure are not sufficient for forming the equations; then such other lines must be drawn as may complete the figure, and bring us to a determination. A problem is proposed to illustrate this; and the Propositions of *Euclid* are enumerated, which will be of use for such purposes.

65. Here the Author proposes and solves three or four geometrical problems, to show the method of arguing from one condition to another, in order to obtain a final equation.

66. When the conditions of a problem involve the properties of angles, they must somehow be reduced to the properties of lines. This is exemplified in the problem of finding an equicrural triangle, in which either of the angles at the base is double to the angle at the vertex: which is reduced to the linear problem, of dividing a line in extreme and mean proportion.

67. Having thus shown how to find equations from the given circumstances of a problem, she proceeds to the resolution of these equations, or to the finding the unknown quantity, by means of various reductions. For this end she

she gives us four axioms. By the first, she shows the use of transposing quantities at pleasure from one side of an equation to the other; which may always be done without destroying the equation, only by changing the signs of the terms so transposed.

68. By the second axiom she shows how we may take away any fractions that arise in an equation, and so reduce the whole to integral terms.

69. And how, by the same, any term may be freed from it's co-efficient.

70. By the third and fourth axiom she shows how equations may be freed from surds and radicals; and of all these reductions gives us a variety of examples.

71. Equations prepared for solution, and distributed into their terms.

72. Equations further prepared, by which the unknown quantity will be found equal to a combination of known quantities, and a simple equation will be solved entirely.

73. If any power of the unknown quantity is found equal to known quantities, then the root may be extracted on both sides.

74. If the equation is an affected quadratick, it may be solved by completing the square on one side, and then extracting the square-root on each side.

75. In quadratick equations the ambiguity of the signs will supply two values of the unknown quantity, which may therefore be both positive, both negative, or one positive and the other negative, or both imaginary, according to the values of the known quantities. What is analogous to this difference of signs in geometrical figures, is here shown, and all is illustrated by examples.

76. The Author shows us here the use of impossible or imaginary roots of equations. For they are a sure indication, that the question (as now proposed) is impossible, either by chance or design. And the same thing is to be concluded, when the final equation brings us to any absurdity or contradiction. This she shows in several instances.

77. And sometimes we may be brought to an identical equation; which only shows that the point required may be any where in the given line, as by the example.

78. Equations

78. Equations and problems are distinguished into degrees, according to the dimensions of the unknown quantity contained in them. Also, those problems are called *Plane*, the resolution of which requires only the ordinary Elements of Geometry. But if they require the description of the Conic Sections, or other curves, they are *Solid Problems*.

79. Equations are not always of that degree which their higher powers seem to insinuate, but may often be brought to a lower degree by an easy reduction: As by the examples.

80. Sometimes necessity, and sometimes conveniency, will require, that more than one unknown quantity may be introduced in a problem; in which case (if the problem is determinate,) as many equations must be found as there are unknown quantities assumed. Then these are to be eliminated one by one, till we finally arrive at an equation, in which there is only one unknown quantity. The way of doing this she shows by an example.

81. This method of elimination may be made use of, not only in simple equations, but also in affected quadratics.

82. Higher equations may sometimes be reduced, by eliminating their greatest powers. And when those powers have not the same index, they may be reduced to such as have. Of both these reductions the Author produces several examples.

83. If there be several simple equations including as many unknown quantities, they may be severally eliminated, and reduced to one equation including only one unknown quantity, though the calculation will often be tedious.

84. If there are not as many equations to be found as there are unknown quantities, the problem will become *indeterminate*, and will allow an infinite number of answers. Of this she produces examples.

85. But if the conditions to be fulfilled, or the equations, are more than necessary, they may be inconsistent with each other, and so the problem will become impossible; or some of the conditions may coincide with others, and so be superfluous.

86. Having

86. Having laid this foundation for calculating with arithmetical or algebraical quantities; she now does the same for calculating with geometrical quantities, or with lines and figures. She begins with the operations of Multiplication and Division, or, what is the same thing, with finding such simple proportions, or constructing such simple equations, as will give the values of the quantities required expressed by lines.

87. The operations of addition and subtraction of lines, when thus found, will be very easy and familiar.

88. Hence, by substitution, any given letter, or letters, may be introduced; or a plane may be transformed into another with a given side, or a solid into another with one or two given sides, &c. by which the construction of simple equations will be much facilitated.

89. This reduction is easily extended to fractions, the numerators or denominators of which are complicate terms.

90. But, without dividing a fraction into several fractions, the method of transformation may often be preferable, as is shown by a variety of examples.

91. Here it is shown how lines may be found, that shall express the value of any quadratick radical, by only finding geometrically a mean proportional between two given quantities: excepting the case when that value is imaginary or impossible.

92. But, to reduce radical quantities to this rule, there will often be occasion to have recourse to the method of transformation, as appears by the examples.

93. Any quadratick radicals may be constructed by a right-angled triangle, either alone or combined with a circle, without transformation; though some transformation will often be found convenient. This illustrated by various examples.

94. The foregoing rules may easily be applied to the construction of any affected quadratick equation; but they may all be constructed after a more general manner. For this purpose the Author assumes a general affected quadratick equation, which she distinguishes into four, according to the variety of
of

of their signs. These she constructs, one after another, by right-angled triangles and a circle, and exhibits the roots, both affirmative and negative, by right lines.

95. The same equations may be otherwise, and more easily, constructed, when the last term is not a square, but a rectangle.

96. Hitherto the learned Author has been laying down the principal rules of the Art of Computation, whether arithmetical, algebraical, or geometrical; she now proceeds, as she tells us, to show their use in the solution of some particular Problems, to the number of 15, with which she concludes this Section. The first is purely arithmetical, and to be found in most Books of Algebra.

97. The second Problem is also very common, and is about the motion of two bodies with given velocities, in various circumstances, general and particular.

98. The next is the famous Problem of King *Hiero's* crown, in which *Archimedes* discovered the quantity of baser metal mixed with the gold, and which gave the occasion to his celebrated *εὕρηκα*.

99. The next Problem is concerning the relation of two weights to each other, and is purely arithmetical. And these Problems hitherto have produced only simple equations.

100. Then we have a Geometrical Problem, which amounts only to a simple equation, and is therefore easily resolved and constructed.

101. The next Problem is geometrical, which arises to a simple quadratick equation, which is there constructed, or resolved, geometrically.

102. Then a Geometrical Problem, teaching to inscribe a cube in a given sphere; which amounts only to a simple quadratick equation, and is there constructed, and the construction proved by a synthetical demonstration.

103. A Geometrical Problem, or rather Theorem, concerning a secant drawn through two concentric circles, so that the parts intercepted by the circumferences shall be equal. This being the property of every such secant, the

solution brings to an identical equation, which is a proper caution how to manage such Problems, and what conclusions we are to derive from them.

104. Another Geometrical, or rather Algebraical, Problem.

105. A Geometrical Problem.

106. A Geometrical Problem, in which the magnitude of angles enters the calculation.

107. A Geometrical Problem, with a synthetical demonstration.

108. The Author gives us here a very notable Geometrical Problem, which is, two contiguous arches of a circle being given, and also their tangents, to find the tangent of their sum. And this she extends very artfully to the solution of a much higher and more general Problem, which is, any number of arches and their tangents being given, to find the tangent of their sum. By the way she gives us a general Theorem, for finding all the possible combinations of any number of quantities given. She concludes with giving a general canon, or formula, for finding the tangent of any multiple or submultiple arch; as also, shows the converse of this Theorem.

109. Then we have a Geometrical Problem, which is, to find a triangle, the sides of which and the perpendicular are in continued geometrical proportion. This amounts to a high equation, but is reduced to an affected quadratick: which is geometrically constructed.

110. The last Problem is that famous geometrical one, of trisecting a given angle. This she divides into three cases, according as the given angle is right, obtuse, or acute. The first case she solves by a simple quadratick equation, of which she also gives us the construction. The second and third cases arise to cubic equations, which she reserves till she comes to treat of those equations.

BOOK I. SECT. III.

Of the Construction of Geometrical Places, and of Indeterminate Problems not exceeding the second Degree.

111. IN this article the Author explains the nature of variable quantities; that there must always be two of them, at least, in an indeterminate Problem, which are varied according to a constant law, which is expressed by a given equation.

112. A *Locus Geometricus* is a right line, or a curve, the *absciss* and *ordinate* (or the *co-ordinates*) of which are variable right lines, which in all cases express the variables of the equation. The *absciss* begins from some certain point taken at pleasure in an indefinite right line, and the *ordinate* is placed at the end of the *absciss*, at a given angle. When a definite value is assigned to one of these lines, the curve, or locus, will give the definite and relative value of the other, agreeably to the equation: as by the instances may be seen.

113. Different equations will require different *loci*, and *vice versa*. And as the equations are of different degrees, so will the *loci* be also.

114. Of a simple equation the locus will always be a right line.

115. When any combination of the variables, in any one term, does not exceed the second degree, the equation will always require a conic section for its locus.

116. These *loci* are here distributed into their several orders.

117. All equations of the first order, or which can belong to a right line, are here constructed.

118. In simple equations, sometimes a determinate problem may be proposed as an indeterminate, in which case one of the variables will vanish out of the equation, or not at all appear in it. Then the locus of the equation will be a

right line, either perpendicular or parallel to the absciss. Of this the Author produces an instance or two, with their construction.

119. The Author goes on to the circle, as the simplest curve, of which she exhibits the first and simplest equations, whether we take the beginning of the absciss from the centre, or from the end of the diameter; and shows what the radius must be, in cases not so simple: and tells us likewise when the circle will be only imaginary.

120. She proceeds then to the parabola, as the next simplest curve, of which she exhibits the primary equations, whether the parameter be simple or complicate, whether the parabola be internal or external.

121. The next conic section is the hyperbola, or rather the two opposite hyperbolas, of which she exhibits the simplest equations, when the ordinates are referred to the axis; whether the absciss commences from the centre, or from either of the vertices; or whether the equation is expressed by the axes, or by the parameter. She finds the equation when the hyperbola is equilateral; and reduces complicate parameters, or diameters, to simple ones.

122. She shows likewise what will be the simplest equation belonging to the hyperbola between its asymptotes.

123. The simplest equations are also derived for the ellipsis, whatever is the angle of ordination; and whether the absciss begins from the centre, or from either of the vertices; or whether the equation is expressed by the diameters, or the parameter. And what will be the equation, when the diameters and parameter are equal. In this last case, if the angle of ordination is a right angle, the ellipsis will degenerate into a circle. Complicate diameters and parameters are reduced to simple ones, as before in the hyperbola, from the equations of which those of the ellipsis will differ only in their signs; so that they will easily pass into each other.

124. When the simple equations to the diameters of the hyperbola, or ellipsis, are not given exactly in the terms of the diameters, but rather in disguised terms; the Author shows how, by the Rule of Proportion, those diameters may be found. Of which reduction she gives Examples.

125. Or

125. Or when the same equations are expressed by parameters, though something obscurely; she shows us how to find those parameters, and gives Examples of it.

126. Having thus exhibited the simplest equations belonging to the Conic Sections, and shown how we may find the diameters or parameters when involved, by which these sections may be described; the Author proceeds to construct any complicate equations that may be given, belonging to these sections or curves; in order to which, she distributes all such equations into three species or classes. The first are those that contain the square of one of the variables, and the rectangle of the other into a constant quantity. The second species contains the rectangle of the two variables, with other simple terms. The third contains the rectangle and both the squares of the variables, with any other simple terms.

127. She then proceeds to construct equations of the first species, however complicate they may be, and reduces them to a simple form, by one or two substitutions of new variables. And of this she gives us two Examples. In the first, by one substitution, she reduces the given equation to the simplest form belonging to the parabola, which she then constructs. In the second, she reduces the given equation, by two substitutions, to the simplest form belonging to the hyperbola between the asymptotes, which she then constructs, and pursues it through all its varieties. When the constant quantities are such, as not to admit of these substitutions, she changes them, by the transmutations she had taught before, into such as will be fit for those substitutions.

128. Then she reduces equations of the second species to the first, by a method not unlike that of extracting the square-root of an affected quadratick equation. By which means, and by a substitution, she introduces a new variable. Of this she gives an Example in an equation to the parabola, which she reduces and constructs. Also, another to the hyperbola, reduced by two substitutions.

129. Then she shows, by an example, how an equation of the third species may be reduced to the first, and so constructed.

130. Here

130. Here she proposes various complicate examples, of which some are to the parabola, some to the hyperbola, and some to the ellipsis, which require several substitutions and transformations; but are all reduced to simple equations, and constructed with great art and ingenuity.

131. All the variety of equations to the hyperbola between the asymptotes, are reduced to four general equations, which are here constructed, by one, two, or more substitutions, or changing of the variables; and that according to all the variety of their signs. To illustrate these constructions, and to show their application in particular cases, she proposes and resolves the several Problems following.

132. The equation of the first Problem is found to belong to the parabola, being the property of the focus of the parabola in respect of the directrix, which is therefore easily constructed by one substitution.

133. The equation of the next Problem is found to be a locus to the hyperbola between the asymptotes, and is constructed by means of two easy substitutions.

134. This Problem is proposed concerning the properties of two circles and their tangents, but the general solution and construction of the equation require all the three conic sections, according to the three cases included in it. These cases are constructed separately, by the help of several substitutions and transmutations.

135. A Problem to the three Conic Sections, according to its three different cases.

136. A general Problem solved by a canonical equation, and illustrated by three Examples of particular curves, of which the last arises to a cubical equation, and therefore goes beyond the Conic Sections.

137. A Problem concerning two equal intersecting circles, which arises to an equation to an ellipsis, which is here constructed by means of one substitution.

138. A Problem, or rather two Problems to the circle, with synthetical demonstrations of the solution.

139. A

139. A Problem of a normal sliding between the sides of a right angle, and with one end describing a curve. This curve, by it's equation, is found to be an ellipsis, and is here constructed.

140. The equation of this Problem is either to the parabola, the hyperbola, or the ellipsis, according to different circumstances, and is resolved by various substitutions, or changes of the indeterminate quantities, and is here constructed.

141. The Method of Majority and Minority is here occasionally explained, which proceeds in the same manner as the reduction of equations. For, by a series of comparisons duly made, we may know which of two quantities is the greater or lesser.

142. A Problem producing an equation to the hyperbola between the asymptotes, which is very artfully resolved and constructed, by three substitutions, or changes of the variable quantities.

143. Here the Author concludes her Problems, and recommends the proving the solution, after it is finished, by tracing back the several substitutions, and so returning to the original equation. Of this she gives us two Examples in the foregoing Problems.

BOOK I. SECT. IV.

Of Solid Problems and their Equations.

144. THE Author having thus dispatched what are called Plane Problems, or such as require only equations of two dimensions; she proceeds to those called Solid Problems, which require equations of more than two dimensions, and therefore higher and more difficult constructions. She begins by informing us what are the roots of such affected equations, or what are the values of the unknown and indeterminate quantities, which are to be extracted out of these equations. That they are such numbers or quantities, that, if they were to be substituted in the equation given, instead of the root, they would reduce the whole to nothing; which would be a full proof, when the root, or roots, are extracted, that they are the true roots of the equation.

145. Or,

145. Or, in another acceptation, those simple equations are often called the Roots of a compound equation, which, being multiplied into each other continually, will produce the equation given. Consequently that equation may be resolved into it's components by continual division. Hence every equation will have so many roots as it has dimensions. Of this she gives us instances in equations of two, three, or four dimensions, or of quadratick, cubick, and biquadratick equations, which are formed by the multiplication of simple, but general equations, and which therefore will be the roots of the equations so formed.

146. Hence, when any of the roots of a compound equation happen to be known, we have a method, by division, of depressing that equation, and reducing it to a simpler, which shall include only the unknown roots.

147. From this way of raising compound equations by multiplication, we may know the constitution of every single term, when the whole equation is disposed in a proper and regular order, and made equal to nothing. For the highest term must always be positive, and have no other co-efficient but unity, which can always be effected. The co-efficient of the second term will be the sum of all the roots, under their proper signs. The co-efficient of the third term will be the sum of the products of every pair of roots, &c. And the last term will be the product of all the roots, affected by their proper signs.

148. It follows from hence, that, if the second term is wanting in any equation, then the sum of the positive roots will be equal to the sum of the negative; therefore, when that term is present and affirmative, the sum of the positive roots will be less than the sum of the negative; but the contrary, if that term be negative.

149. When any term is wanting in an equation, it's absence is commonly indicated by putting an asterisk in it's place.

150. If no imaginary root appears in the equation, yet it may have them, two by two, always in pairs, and with contrary signs. If the degree of the equation is odd, it will have, at least, one real root; and if it's degree is even, it may have all it's roots imaginary. The like may be observed of surd roots.

151. Many

151. Many useful indications, concerning the roots of an affected equation, may be had from the signs of the several terms.

152. A proof that, in cubick and biquadratick equations, if the second term is wanting, and the third term is positive, there will necessarily be imaginary roots.

153. In any equation the affirmative roots may be made negative, and the negative affirmative, only by changing the signs of those terms which are in even places. Here the asterisk, or vacant place, must always be reckoned for one. This proved by Examples.

154. The roots of affected equations may be increased or diminished by any quantity at pleasure, by resolving the root into two parts, one unknown, and the other known; and that only by a substitution of equivalents. The new equation so found will have the same roots as the given equation, only they will be increased or diminished by a known quantity. See the Author's Examples.

155. By a like substitution of equivalents, the roots of any equation, though unknown, may be multiplied or divided by a given quantity, and undergo many other changes at pleasure.

156. The reason of these several processes is, that, as equals are always substituted for equals, so the results must always come out equal.

157. The uses of these substitutions are many. One of which is, that, though the roots of an equation are unknown, yet, by such a transformation, they may often become known.

158. Another use is, the freeing an equation from fractions or surds. Of this the Author produces several Examples.

159. Some necessary conditions in the equation, in order to it's being freed from surds or radicals.

160. But the chief use of this transmutation of equations, is intirely to take away the second term from any equation by an easy substitution: of which the Author gives several instances.

161. Or the third term may be taken away, by solving a quadratick equation, the fourth by a cubic, &c.; as may appear from the Author's general process.

162. In an equation wanting the second term, the penultimate term may be taken away; but it will be by restoring the second term.

163. Thus, in an equation wanting the third term, the ante-penultimate term may be taken away; and so on.

164. Or any equation, in which any term or terms are wanting, may be made complete by a new substitution.

165. If equations have divisors of one, two, or more dimensions, they are properly of that order, to which they may be reduced by division.

166. Division ought first to be tried by a divisor of one dimension, then by those of two, &c.

167. Equations of the third degree, if reducible, may be reduced by a linear or simple divisor, which is to be found in the manner taught in the 56th Article before. If an equation of the fourth degree cannot be reduced by a divisor of one dimension, to be found in the same manner, the reduction must be attempted by a divisor of two dimensions. To perform which, the Author throws out the second term of the equation, as shown before, and then assumes two general equations of two dimensions, and multiplies them together, and compares the terms of the produced equation with those of the equation given. By this comparison she determines the co-efficients of the assumed equations, the last comparison of which amounts to an equation, which in effect is no more than cubical. This cubic equation is resolved by the Method of Divisors, and its roots, being substituted in the assumed equations, will make them become divisors of the biquadratick equation proposed. Of this method of solution she gives us two Examples.

168. Here is the same process as before, but after a more general manner, and applied to a particular biquadratick equation, which is resolved by it.

169. Sometimes this method will succeed only by taking away the second term of the equation, which will depress it to a quadratick.

170. The

170. The same method is pursued, but without taking away the second term of the given biquadratick equation. Two general quadratick equations are assumed, and multiplied together, and the general co-efficients of the product are determined and eliminated, as far as may be, by a comparison with those of the given equation. The last co-efficient in these comparisons must be determined by the foregoing Method of Divisors. But this way of resolution seems to be too tentative to be of any general use. It is illustrated by three Examples.

171. The same method is carried on to equations of five dimensions, in which the two assumed general equations are, one of two and another of three dimensions. When, by comparison, the general co-efficients are determined, they are substituted in the simplest of the assumed equations, which then becomes a divisor of the given equation; as by two Examples.

172. The Author extends this method to equations of six dimensions, which she manages with great sagacity and success, though it must be owned to be very tedious, precarious, and tentative; but, however, is the best that can be had in these high equations. She assumes two general and subsidiary equations, one of two, and another of four dimensions, which are multiplied together to produce a general formula for equations of six dimensions, that may be resolved into two such equations. Then the general co-efficients are determined as before, and substituted in the simplest of the assumed equations, which will then become a divisor of the given equation. Of this reduction she gives us an Example.

But an equation of the sixth degree may possibly be resolved into two cubic equations, and not otherwise. She therefore assumes two general cubic equations, and multiplies them together, to constitute a general formula for these equations. Then, a particular equation of six dimensions being given, the general co-efficients are determined by comparison, as far as that can be done, and their values are finally substituted in one of the assumed equations, in order to form a divisor to the given equation.

173. The Author assures us, that the same method might be applied to the solution of higher equations, if it was not for the excessive tediousness of the operations. It may very well be supposed, that the calculation will become

very laborious in those equations, by what we see in these of a lower order. And as the method is but tentative at best, it can hardly deserve to be prosecuted any further; especially as we have an *exegetis numerosa* to recur to in these cases, which, though only an approximation to the root, yet will answer all real occasions that can offer. The Author now proceeds to propose and resolve some particular Problems, in order to show the use and application of what is now delivered.

174. The first Problem is purely arithmetical, and is elegant enough: *To find four numbers which exceed one another by unity, and their product is 100.* The equation of this Problem amounts to a biquadratic equation with all its terms; but, by throwing out the second term, it is reduced to a quadratic with four roots. These are irrational, of which two only are real, one positive, the other negative, either of which will solve the Problem. The first and least of the four numbers required, when reduced to a decimal, will be the negative number.

175. The next is a Geometrical Problem, relating to a right-angled triangle. Its equation is a biquadratic with all its terms, but when the second term is taken away, it degenerates into a quadratic with a plane root, but irrational.

176. A Geometrical Problem producing a biquadratic equation, the four roots of which are irrational, and may be all real, and are exhibited by the figure.

177. An equation may often appear of a higher order than the Problem really requires, if a prudent choice is made of the unknown quantity, by which the Problem is determined. This is illustrated in several apposite Examples.

178. Another artifice that often prevents Problems from rising to too high equations, is finding two values of the same unknown quantity, and making them equal. An instance of this is seen in the next Problem.

179. This Problem is, *in a given circle to inscribe a regular heptagon.* The Author gives several solutions of this Problem, which amount to high equations; but, by being compared with each other, are reduced lower. At last he brings it to a cubic equation with a plane root. This is performed by finding two different expressions for the same quantity, and comparing them together.

180. When

180. When cubic (or higher) equations cannot be thus reduced, their roots may be found analytically, but involved in surds, by what are called *Cardan's Rules*. But the geometrical method will be more universal, by constructing them, and finding their roots by the intersection of curve-lines.

181. She begins with the analytical solution, or with finding *Cardan's Rules*: All cubic equations, that want the second term, are represented by four general formulæ, differing only in the several changes of the signs. To resolve the first general formula, she divides the unknown root into two parts, which, after substitution, gives room for splitting the equation into two, such as may easily be resolved separately. This finds commodious values for the two assumed parts of the root, and brings us two cubical radicals for the value of the root. See the *Philosophical Transactions*, Number 309.

182. The solution of the second formula does not differ from the first, but only in the signs.

183. The same may be said of the third.

184. And likewise of the fourth.

185. All the four formulæ are solved something differently, in which the two parts of the root have only one cubic radical; but which coincide with the foregoing solution, and are easily reduced to it.

186. The limits of these roots are here assigned, and it is shown when they will be real, and when two of them will be only imaginary.

187. When one root is found of a cubic equation, the other two may be found without division. For, as unity itself has three cubic roots, so any other quantity has the same. Therefore, multiplying the root found by the three roots of unity successively, we shall have the three roots of the given equation. This is proved here synthetically, by returning to the original equation. See *Phil. Trans.* No. 309.

188. This method of solution is illustrated, by applying it to a given cubic equation, of which the three roots are thence found.

189. Or, without recurring to the general solution, any particular cubic equation may be solved, by pursuing the method of that solution. Of these here are given several Examples.

190. The Author proceeds to the solution of biquadratic equations, of which she takes a general formula, with the second term absent. Then assumes two general quadratic formulæ, which, multiplied together, produce a general biquadratic equation; and, by comparison with the first general equation, she determines the assumed co-efficients. This will bring her to a transformed cubic equation, in the manner taught in Article 167 foregoing. And thus she proceeds to determine the four roots of the assumed biquadratic equation. See Phil. Transf.

This solution she applies to an Example.

191. From the algebraical resolution of these equations, she proceeds to the more general (as she calls it), or to the geometrical solution, which is, by constructing the several *loci geometrici*, or curve-lines, adapted to every equation consisting of two indeterminates. Every determinate equation may be resolved into two indeterminate equations, by introducing a quantity into it at pleasure. These two equations must consist of the same two variable quantities, and the same constant quantities, and may be constructed by two curves. If those two curves are combined in such manner, as that they shall have a common absciss, they will also have some common ordinates at their common points, that is, their points of intersection. These common ordinates will be the roots of the determinate equation, if the quantity representing those roots is made one of the variable quantities. To exemplify this, she assumes a determinate biquadratic equation, and also an equation to the parabola. This she introduces, by substitution, into the given biquadratic, which will then be an indeterminate equation to the hyperbola. She then constructs these two curves upon a common axis, and draws four ordinates from the four points of intersection of the curves, which will be the roots required.

192. From this construction these notable circumstances will evidently follow; that the positive and negative roots will be on different sides of the common absciss; that, when two ordinates become equal, or when the two curves do not
cut

cut but touch each other, two roots of the equation will be equal; or, when the two curves cut each other in the vertex, one of the roots will be equal to nothing; and where the curves neither touch nor cut, the roots will be impossible.

193. It is here shown, that, as there may be great variety in reducing a determinate equation given, to two indeterminate equations, in order to be constructed; so such a choice is to be made of the two *loci*, that the construction may be as simple as possible. According as the equation is in degree, so each *locus* should be taken, as together to make up nearly the dimensions of the given equation.

194. Here it is shown, by an Example, how the several *loci* to the Conic Sections are to be distinguished from one another.

195. Other cautions to be observed, in adapting the *loci* to their equations.

196. Here follow some Examples, to illustrate the foregoing doctrine. The first is, a determinate cubic equation wanting the second term, which is reduced to a biquadratick, by multiplying the whole by the root, and a simple equation to the parabola is assumed. This is introduced into the given equation by substitution, by which it becomes an indeterminate equation to the circle. Then these two *loci* are combined, or constructed to a common absciss, and from their intersection a common ordinate is drawn, which will therefore represent the root of the given equation. Their other intersection is at the vertex, and therefore it's root will be nothing, which was introduced into the equation. The truth of this construction is confirmed by a demonstration.

197. The same equation is again constructed by combining two parabolas, and the construction demonstrated.

198. Or, to construct the same equation, the equilateral hyperbola might be introduced, only by subtracting one of the equations to the parabola from the other.

199. Or, lastly, by a small alteration, one of the *loci* might have been to the circle, the other to the hyperbola.

200. But,

200. But, without increasing the dimensions of the cubic equation, it may be constructed by an hyperbola between the asymptotes, combined with a parabola; as is here performed, and the construction demonstrated. And so may all other equations be constructed, that do not exceed the third degree.

In her next Example she takes a determinate equation of the fourth degree, which she changes into an indeterminate, by the substitution of an equation to the parabola. Into this she introduces an equation to the circle, and then constructs it by means of these two *loci*: which construction she then demonstrates.

For another Example she takes a determinate cubic equation, into which she introduces a known root by multiplication, which raises it to a biquadratick. Then taking an equation to the parabola, by the substitution of this after various manners, she produces several indeterminate equations; the last of which, being to the circle, she makes choice of for constructing the biquadratick equation. One of it's roots is the known root that was introduced, two are imaginary, and the fourth is a real but negative root. Then she demonstrates the construction.

Another Example is, an equation of six dimensions, but, being divisible by a divisor of two dimensions, it is reduced to a biquadratick equation. By various substitutions of an equation to the parabola, various *loci* are formed, of which she constructs one, which is to the equilateral hyperbola. But these two *loci*, being combined as their equations require, will no where intersect each other, or will have no common ordinates. Which proves, that all the roots of the given equation are imaginary and impossible.

201. In this Example a biquadratick, or cubic, equation is proposed, to be constructed by two conical *loci*, not to be found (as before) from the given lines of the equation, but such as are already known and described, or otherwise by such as shall be like to these. This is performed by deriving the two *loci* in general (as before), and then introducing new quantities, which are to be determined from the known lines of the given *loci*, according to their various circumstances. This equation, therefore, is constructed by means of a given parabola, combined with a given hyperbola.

It

If it should be required to construct a biquadratick equation with a given parabola, and with an ellipsis that is of the same species with an ellipsis given; here is an instance of it, by means of introducing new quantities into the equation; which are afterwards to be determined as occasion shall require. And the truth of the construction is demonstrated at length.

202. The Author here, by way of anticipation, gives us some constructions of equations that exceed the fourth degree, though she reserves the fuller treating of such constructions to her next Section. She assumes a determinate equation of the fifth degree, and likewise an indeterminate equation to the parabola, and, by substitution, forms an equation, or locus, to a line of the third degree, which, combined with the parabola, will construct the given equation. Or, she shows how it may be done with the same locus combined with an hyperbola. Or, with an hyperbola, and the first cubic parabola. Likewise, she constructs an equation of the sixth degree, by a parabola combined with a line, or locus, of the third degree: of which equation she finds two real roots, one affirmative and the other negative, and the other four are imaginary.

203. Then she tells in what order the *loci* must rise, by which we would construct higher equations; and constructs (for example) an equation of eight dimensions by means of a parabola, combined with another locus of four dimensions.

204. She then observes, how equations of the ninth degree (and therefore those of the eighth degree, reduced to the ninth by multiplying by the unknown root,) may be constructed by combining two *loci* of the third degree: which rule she makes general.

205. The most natural way of constructing an equation of any degree, is by a right line for one of the *loci*, and a curve of the same degree for the other. As an example of this method, the Author assumes a definite equation of the fifth degree, makes one of the divisors of the last term to become indefinite, that is, assumes a locus to a right line, and, substituting it in the given equation, makes it become an indefinite equation of the same degree as the equation given. This being constructed, and the right line drawn as it ought to be by

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the nature of the equation, the common ordinates will determine so many absciffes, which will represent the roots of the given equation. Those roots will be impossible, where the right line does not meet the curve.

206. She tells us this method may be of use in verifying other constructions; then proceeds to particular Problems, with their constructions.

207. The first is a Geometrical, or rather Analytical Problem; *between two given quantities, to find as many mean proportionals as we please.* This is applied to finding two mean proportionals, and arises to a simple cubic equation, which she raises to an affected biquadratick, by multiplying it by the unknown root. Then assumes a locus to the parabola, and, by substituting it various ways in the given equation, she forms several other *loci*, one to a parabola, one to an hyperbola, and one to a circle. This last she combines with the assumed locus to the parabola, and constructs the equation given; finding one real affirmative root, and the root that was introduced which is equal to nothing, and the other two roots will be imaginary.

208. Or, without introducing a new root equal to nothing, she constructs it by a parabola, and an hyperbola between the asymptotes.

209. To find three mean proportionals is a plane Problem.

210. To find four mean proportionals amounts to a simple equation of the fifth degree, which she constructs by means of a parabola combined with an hyperboloid of the third degree.

211. Or, by the common hyperbola between it's asymptotes, and the second cubical parabola.

212. To find five mean proportionals amounts only to a cubical equation. Then she observes, by what *loci* fix, seven, or any other number of mean proportionals may be found.

213. The next is a Geometrical Problem, *of three contiguous chords being given, terminating at the diameter of a circle, to find that diameter;* which Problem has two cases. For the middle chord may cut the diameter, either within the circle or (produced) without. The equation that arises for the solution of this

Problem is cubical, which she multiplies by the root to make it a biquadratick. Then, affuming a locus to the parabola, by substitution she finds another locus, which is to the circle; by the combination of which two *loci* she finds the three roots, and then determines which of them will solve the present Problem. After which she proceeds to the other case, which, with little variation, requires the same construction.

214. A Geometrical Problem, by which the Problem of § 176 is made more general, the equation ascending to the fourth degree. It is constructed by a parabola combined with an hyperbola.

215. This Problem is, *to trisect a given angle*, (see § 110.) and amounts to a cubic equation, which is constructed by two *loci*, the parabola, and the hyperbola between it's asymptotes. The construction is demonstrated, and extended to all the cases.

216. A further explanation of the trisection of an angle, showing how the three roots of the equation serve for all the three several cases, which are implied in the trisection of any angle.

217. The same otherwise constructed, by combining two other *loci*, one to the parabola, and the other to the circle.

218. This Problem of dividing a given arch into any given number of parts, is here extended to five equal parts, and arises to an equation of the fifth degree. It is constructed by affuming a locus to the parabola, and thence forming an indeterminate equation of the third degree, which is constructed by a curve proper to it. These two, being combined, give all the five roots of the equation.

219. And this may be extended to the dividing any angle into any greater odd number of equal parts.

BOOK I. SECT. V.

The Construction of Loci exceeding the second Degree.

220. HAVING discoursed at large of the use of the Conic Sections, as geometrical *loci* for the construction of equations; the Author proceeds now to higher curves, and their description, as the proper *loci* for constructing equations of more dimensions. These curves, she says, may be described in two different manners; one is, by finding as many points as we please in each curve, and tracing regular curves through them. The other is, by taking a curve already described of a lower order, and finding by that the points of the other curve, or locus.

221. In order to describe a curve by an infinite number of points, from it's equation we must derive the value of one of it's unknown quantities, and suppose it the ordinate of a curve. Then we must assume a succession of values of the other unknown quantity, or the absciss, and then the corresponding ordinate will become known, and so give us a succession of points in the curve, through which we may trace a regular curve, which will be one locus. Of this she proposes an Example in an equation of three dimensions.

222. This ordinate may be drawn at any constant angle to it's respective absciss.

223. As an example of this description of a curve by points, the Author assumes the equation to an equilateral hyperbola; and, interpreting the absciss by small numbers continually, she finds the corresponding ordinates, which give so many points in the curve.

224. And the same thing will obtain if the absciss is interpreted by negative numbers, beginning from the centre of the hyperbola; so that the same hyperbola will arise, but only in an inverted position.

225. And when the ordinate is made nothing, the value of the absciss will show when the curve cuts the axis.

226. Also,

226. Also, intermediate points may be found, by intermediate values of the absciss and ordinate.

227. A Rule to find whether a curve has asymptotes or no, and where they are if it has any.

228. But this Rule holds only when the asymptotes are parallel to the co-ordinates ; for the hyperbola has it's asymptotes, which may be found from another equation to the same curve, and by the same rule.

229. The affair, of finding the asymptotes of curves, properly belongs to the Method of Infinitesimals, to which therefore it is referred.

230. Other circumstances of the proposed curve are here inquired into, as, whether it is convex or concave towards it's axis. This is easily determined by the Rule of Proportion. For, if a triangle is inscribed in the curve, and an ordinate is drawn which is in common both to the curve and the triangle ; if the ordinate to the triangle is less than that to the curve, the curve will be concave to it's axis ; otherwise not.

231. But this Rule will not always obtain in all curves ; for, in some, particular methods must be used, as will be seen hereafter. The Author proceeds to give another Example of describing curves by points, which is the first cubical parabola. Of this she determines a sufficient number of points, to show it's progress, that it cuts the axis only in one point, that it goes on *ad infinitum*, that it has no asymptotes, that it is concave towards it's axis, and that it has a negative branch like the positive, but contrarily posited.

The next Example is of the first cubical hyperboloid, the form of which she determines by finding it's points ; as also it's asymptotes, and other circumstances.

She then gives an Example of a curve of the fourth degree, the form of which she determines by finding the several points.

232. She further prosecutes the same equation through all it's varieties, of positive, negative, and imaginary roots ; showing the different circumstances of the curve, and of it's several branches, which result from those roots.

Another Example of an equation of three dimensions, from the roots of which, and finding the most material points, the form and other circumstances of the curve belonging to it are determined: as it's asymptote, it's conjugate oval, &c.

Another Example of a curve of three dimensions, in which the principal points are determined by the several roots of the equation.

233. The same equation and the same curve is further prosecuted, and other of it's properties discovered: as it's two parts extending to infinity, their common asymptote, the convexity towards it's axis, &c.

234. The same method, of describing the curve by points, may be extended to equations in which the indeterminates are involved together, and not easily separable. The points required may still be found, though the trouble will be increased.

235. The Author makes an apology, for seeming to depart from the method she had prescribed to herself, in treating of these high equations and their curves; and then illustrates what she has delivered, by proposing and solving several Problems.

236. The construction of the first Problem produces a well-known curve called the *Cissoïd* of *Diocles*, and arises to an equation of the third degree. This locus the Author describes, by finding several of the principal points, and determines it's asymptote.

237. In this Problem the Author finds another curve by it's points, the equation of which arises to four dimensions.

238. A Problem in which the Author constructs a curve, which she calls the *Witch*. It's equation arises to three dimensions, and she determines it's asymptote and other circumstances.

239. The curve of the next Problem will be the *Conchoid* of *Nicomedes*, the equation of which arises to the fourth degree. This she constructs by finding it's principal points, it's two distinct parts separated by a common asymptote, it's concavity and convexity, and that it has points of contrary flexure

flexure and regression. This is in the first case; for she distinguishes the Problem into three cases, which she pursues separately.

240. As the first case depended upon the equality of two certain lines, so this requires that one of them shall be bigger than the other, and so will produce a different figure with something different properties. The point of regression in the former case now becomes a node, where the curve crosses itself, and forms a foliate. The asymptote remains as before, and the curve will have a like concavity and convexity towards it.

241. The other case is, when that line, which before was the greatest of the two, is now the least. This produces a great alteration in the curve of the former case; for now the foliate entirely vanishes, and makes the curve have a continued curvature at it's vertex, not much unlike that part on the other side of the asymptote.

242. The Author proposes a way here, of improving this method of describing curves by points; which is by geometrical construction. In this her first Example of it, she resumes the *Cissoïd* of *Diocles* and it's equation, § 236, which she constructs an easier way by geometrical effect.

In her second Example she resumes the curve of § 237, which she constructs after a like manner.

Then she does the same by the curve called the *Witch*, § 238.

And by the *Conchoid* of *Nicomedes*, of § 239, which she constructs geometrically in all it's varieties.

243. The foregoing constructions are easily performed by the assistance of a circle; others may be made by the help of other simple curves. As, here an equation of four dimensions is constructed by means of a parabola; but that parabola must be varied for every new ordinate. However, every new parabola gives four points in the curve.

244. Parabolas are here enumerated, and distributed into orders, according to their dimensions. There is only one of the first order, which is the *Apollonian*, or common parabola: two cubic parabolas, or of the second order; three of the third order, or of four dimensions; &c.

245. In

245. In these several orders of parabolas, those are called first parabolas in whose equation the absciss ascends no higher than to the root, or first power. She begins with the construction of the first cubic parabola, the equation of which she changes (by substitution) into that of the common parabola, which she constructs; then, by means of this she easily finds the points of the other parabola: and that both for the positive and negative branch.

246. The Author proceeds to construct the first parabola of the fourth degree, by changing it's equation of four dimensions (by substitution) into the equation of the first cubical parabola, which has been constructed. Then, by the help of similar triangles, for every ordinate of the assumed parabola she determines a point of the curve required, in each branch affirmative and negative.

247. By the same method, from the first parabola of the fourth degree the Author constructs the first parabola of the fifth degree, as to both it's branches affirmative and negative.

248. She then shows, in general, that we may always construct a first parabola of any degree, by means of a triangle, and of the first parabola of the next lower degree.

249. The Author then proceeds to construct other parabolas besides the first, and that of any degree, by means of the first, which she supposes already described. As, here she describes the second cubic parabola, by finding it's ordinate from that of the first, being reduced to a common absciss. And, in like manner, she constructs the third parabola of the fourth degree, by reducing the value of one ordinate to that of another.

250. She adds here a useful Remark concerning any of these parabolas, or paraboloids; which is, that the second parabola of the fourth degree is no other than the common parabola, only redoubled on the negative side: and so in all other, in which the index of the power of the ordinate is double to that of the absciss, and both even numbers. But if the index of the power of the absciss is an odd number, the curve will be no other than the common parabola, without such reduplication. And this holds good of all hyperbolas as well as parabolas.

251. She

251. She goes on to the construction of hyperbolas (or hyperboloids) of any degree. There are only two of the third degree; the first has it's ordinates reciprocally proportional to the squares of the abscisses, in the second the square of the ordinate is reciprocally as the abscifs. The first of these she constructs by the help of a common parabola and hyperbola, by means of which she finds it's points. The other will be the same curve in effect, and may be constructed the same way, only by changing the co-ordinates into each other.

252. The Author proceeds to construct hyperboloids of the fourth degree, or such wherein the ordinate is reciprocally as the cube of the abscifs; or the square of the ordinate is reciprocally as the square of the abscifs; or the cube of the ordinate is reciprocally as the abscifs. The first she constructs by the help of the common hyperbola and the first cubical parabola; the second is no other than the common hyperbola itself; and the third is the same as the first, if the co-ordinates change places.

253. She goes on to construct hyperboloids of the fifth degree; and, first, that in which the ordinate is reciprocally proportional to the fourth power of the abscifs. She finds the points of this, by first constructing a common hyperbola, and then, in proper circumstances, a first paraboloid of the fourth degree. She also constructs another hyperboloid of the fifth degree, in which the square of the ordinate is reciprocally as the cube of the abscifs, by assuming two other curves of an inferior degree. In all these constructions she determines the asymptotes of the curves, and their other affections. And the same method might be pursued in *loci* of higher degrees.

254. She observes that all first parabolas, described about the same axis, will cut one another in the same point. This point will be distinct from their common vertex; and, besides, they must all have the same parameter.

255. Likewise, that these first parabolas, in tending to this common intersection, the higher their dimensions are, the nearer they approach to the tangent; and, after they are past it, the nearer they approach to the axis. And the first hyperboloids have also a like property.

256. Having constructed these paraboloids and hyperboloids, or curves of two terms only; the Author proceeds to such as have several terms, which she

distinguishes into three cases. The first case is of those curves, or their equations, in which the ordinate is but of one dimension only, and is found only in one term. In the second, the ordinate arises to any power, but is found in one term only.

In the third, the ordinate is found in more terms than one, and of any number of dimensions.

[257. She gives here an Example of the first case. The equation of the curve to be constructed is of the fourth degree, and has three terms. By a convenient substitution this equation is resolved into two others, one of which contains only constant quantities, and the other belongs to a first parabola of the fourth degree, which is here constructed, and the co-ordinates of the other curve are easily derived from it; which curve, it is observed, will be a portion of a parabola of the same degree.

258. Another Example of the same case, in which the equation of the curve to be constructed has three terms and four dimensions. Here again, first, the equation is resolved into two others by a substitution, and then the curve is constructed by means of two first parabolas, one of three, and the other of four dimensions.

259. A third Example of the same case. The equation of the curve is of four dimensions, and has four terms. This likewise is resolved into two other equations by a substitution, of which one is similar to that which was constructed in the preceding example, and the other is to the *Apollonian* parabola; and by means of these two curves the required one is easily constructed.

Here the Author remarks that, if an equation should more abound in terms, the same artifice might be used; and that, although the construction in this case might become more compounded and perplexed, yet the same method would obtain.

She observes also that the equation in this example might have been resolved, by another substitution, into three equations belonging to as many parabolas of different orders; and then, by means of these auxiliary curves, the principal curve might have been constructed.

260. It is here shown, that the co-ordinates of these curves may make any angle.

261. The Author gives here an Example of the second case, in the construction of a general equation of many terms, which, by a convenient substitution, she reduces to case the first. See the Example.

262. An Example of constructing a curve of the third case. The equation here proposed is general, and is resolved, by a proper substitution, into others which belong to the first case ; so that, by the construction of these curves, the co-ordinates of the proposed curve are obtained.

263. Hitherto the Author has considered only those equations which have their indeterminate quantities separate ; she here observes that, when the indeterminates are involved with each other, the foregoing rules cannot take place, but that a separation of the variable quantities must be made, either by common division, or by the extraction of roots, or by a congruous substitution, or by other expedients. She then gives two examples of the separation of the indeterminate quantities : in the first, it is performed by common division ; in the second, by a convenient substitution.

264. Having shown how to prepare equations of that kind for construction, she proceeds to the actual construction of them, taking here the first equation in the preceding article, and constructing it by means of equations which come under case the first of article 256.

265. The construction of the other equation in § 263 : which, it is shown, may be performed by case the third of § 256.

266. A remark, That a convenient substitution may be of use even in those cases in which the indeterminate quantities are already separated ; and may suggest a construction which is more easy and elegant.

267. An instance of the truth of the foregoing remark appears here, where the construction of a curve, the equation of which has four dimensions, is

facilitated by a substitution, although the variable quantities in that equation were separate. With this the Author ends her examples of the construction of curves.

BOOK I. SECT. VI.

Of the Method De Maximis et Minimis, of the Tangents of Curves, of Contrary Flexure and Regression; making use only of the Common Algebra.

268. THE Author here observes that, although the Calculus of Infinitesimals* be the simplest and shortest method, and the most universal, for managing such speculations, yet the solution of such questions may be performed by common Algebra, in curves that are expressed by finite algebraical equations.

She begins with the *Maxima* and *Minima*; that is, to find in geometrical curves the greatest or the least ordinates; and shows that, in either case, two ordinates coincide, and consequently two abscisses become equal; and thence two roots of the equation belonging to the curve, taken either in terms of the letter which expresses the absciss, or of the letter which expresses the ordinate, become equal to each other.

Her first Example is, To find the greatest or least ordinate when the curve is an Ellipsis; which she does by forming a quadratick equation which has equal roots, and comparing it, term by term, with the equation of the curve. She then shows how to perform the same thing when the equation of the curve is of the third, fourth or higher degree; which is, by forming an equation of the same degree, that has two equal roots, and comparing it, term by term, with the equation of the curve. See the Examples.

269. A shorter and easier way of doing the same thing; which is, by multiplying the terms of the given equation by the terms of an arithmetical

* Rather *Fluxions*. EDITOR.

progression.

progreſſion. For, if an equation has two equal roots, (which is the caſe of a *maximum* or *minimum*,) one of theſe roots will, of neceſſity, be included in the product of that equation multiplied by the arithmetical progreſſion. This is demonſtrated; and the two preceding examples are reſumed, and the ſame reſults obtained, although different progreſſions are uſed.

270. The Author proceeds to find tangents and perpendiculars to curves by a like method; previously ſhowing that the queſtion is reduced to this: To find a circle that ſhall touch the curve in any given point. This alſo is performed by means of equations that have two equal roots: which ſhe explains, and illuſtrates by an example of drawing a tangent to the *Apollonian* parabola. The equation which thus ariſes is ſolved, firſt, by comparing it with another quadratick having two equal roots; ſecondly, by multiplying the terms of it by the terms of the arithmetic progreſſion 3, 2, 1; and, laſtly, by multiplying the terms by the progreſſion 2, 1, 0.

271. Another Example of drawing a tangent to a curve of which the equation is cubical, worked both by comparing it with an equation of the ſame degree which has two equal roots, and by multiplying the terms of it by the arithmetical progreſſion 3, 2, 1, 0.

272. It is obſerved, that, in general, the moſt convenient progreſſion will be that which forms the exponents of the letter according to which the equation is ordered.

273. The Problem of drawing tangents is ſolved in a way ſomewhat different, but more ſimple; and the formulæ here derived are of uſe alſo in finding points of contrary flexure and regreſſion.

274. Points of Contrary Flexure and Regreſſion are here defined; and it is ſhown that, as the nature of *maxima* and *minima*, and of tangents, requires equations that have two equal roots, ſo in contrary flexures and regreſſions three equal roots are required. An example of finding the point of contrary flexure is given, by way of illuſtration.

275. The Author obſerves that the operation is the ſame for finding the points of regreſſion in curves, as for finding points of contrary flexure; ſo
6
that,

that, to distinguish them, there is no other way, but to find, by means of a construction, the figure and proceeding of the curve.

She says that the same ambiguity arises in questions *de maximis et minimis*, which can only be removed by acquiring some knowledge of the disposition of the curve. She then observes that, by the same condition of three equal roots, we may find the *radii* of curvature; but, intending to treat of these things in the second Volume, she here puts an end to the first.]

N. B. It being my intention to deliver what I have to offer on the second Volume in Notes, as is mentioned in my Advertisement prefixed to this Work, the reader will see the propriety of my continuing the *Plan of the Lady's System of Analyticks* no further.

J. H.

ANALYTICAL INSTITUTIONS.

BOOK I.

ANALYTICAL INSTITUTIONS.

BOOK I.

THE ANALYSIS OF FINITE QUANTITIES.

THE *Analysis* of Finite Quantities, which is commonly called the *Algebra* of Introduction.
Cartesius, is a method of solving Problems by the use and management What is
of finite quantities: that is, from certain quantities and conditions, which are *Algebra*, or
given and known, we may come to the knowledge of others which are unknown *Analyticks*.
and required; and that by means of certain operations and methods, which I
propose to explain by degrees in the following Sections.

SECT. I.

Of the First Notions and Operations of the Analysis of Finite Quantities.

I. THE primary operations of this *Algebra*, or *Analyticks*, are the same as The opera-
those of common *Arithmetick*; which are, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplica- tions of Al-
tion, Division, and Extraction of Roots. But with this difference, that whereas gebra, what.
in *Arithmetick* those operations are performed with numbers, in *Algebra* they
are performed (or perhaps only insinuated) with species, or the letters of the
alphabet; by which quantities are denominated and calculated in the abstract,
of whatever kind they may be, whether Geometrical or Physical, as Lines,
Surfaces, Solids, Forces, Resistances, Velocities, &c. And therefore this kind
B of

of Arithmetick is often called *The Algorithm of Quantities*, or *Specious Arithmetick*. And indeed this is of a much more excellent and general nature than that can be, though all it's operations are the same; as well because these quantities are not confounded one among another in their operations, as numbers are; as because in this Calculus known and unknown quantities are treated indifferently, and with the same facility; and lastly, because Analytical demonstrations are general, and therefore applicable alike to all cases; whereas in Arithmetick they are particular, and in every different case require a new determination.

Positive and negative quantities distinguished.

2. Now of these quantities some are *positive*, or said to be greater than nothing; others are less than nothing, and therefore are called *negative*. To explain this by an example. The goods in our own possession may be called positive, but those which we owe to others are negative, because they must be subtracted from the positive, and therefore will diminish their sum total. Wherefore, as the capitals in our possession are positive, and are answerable for our debts; so the debts we owe will be negative quantities. In like manner, if a body or point in motion is directed towards a certain mark, and in it's passage describes a space, this space may be called positive; but afterwards if it receives an opposite direction, it will indeed describe a space, but this space will be negative in respect of the mark to which it ought to go. Wherefore, in Geometry, if a line drawn one way is assumed as positive, (for this is quite arbitrary,) a line drawn the contrary way will be negative.

The signs of positive and negative quantities, with other marks, explained.

3. Positive and negative quantities in Algebra are distinguished by means of certain marks, or signs, which are prefixed to them. To positive quantities the sign $+$, or *plus*, is prefixed: to negative quantities the sign $-$, or *minus*. And when a quantity has no sign prefixed, as when it stands alone, or is the first among others, it is then always supposed to be affected by the positive sign. The sign \pm , the contrary of which is \mp , is an ambiguous sign, and signifies either *plus* or *minus*. So, for example, $\pm a$ insinuates, that the quantity or number represented by a may be taken either affirmative (that is, positive) or negative. The mark $=$ signifies equality, and therefore $a = b$ informs us, that the two quantities expressed by a and b are equal to each other. So $a > b$ means, that a is greater than b . Also, $a < b$ tells us, that a is less than b . The equality of ratios, or the geometrical proportion of three or four terms, is thus expressed: $a . b :: b . c$, when there are three terms; that is, the ratio of a to b is equal to the ratio of b to c . Also, $a . b :: c . d$ means, that a is to b as c is to d . Lastly, the sign ∞ denotes infinite, and therefore $a = \infty$ signifies, that a is equal to infinite, or is an infinite quantity.

Quantities are divided into simple or compound.

4. A quantity is simple, incomplex, or of one term only, when it is expressed by one or more letters, but those are not separated or distinguished from one another by the sign either of addition or subtraction. Such are a , ab , aac , and the like. So, on the contrary, quantities are compound, or of several terms,

terms, when they are expressed by several letters, separated from one another by the signs $+$ or $-$. Such are $a + b$, $aa - ff + bb$, and the like. And therefore $a + b$ will be a quantity of two terms, or a binomial; $aa - ff + bb$ will be one of three terms, or a trinomial, &c.

Addition of Simple Quantities, being Integers.

5. Simple quantities are added to one another by writing one after another, prefixing to each it's proper sign. As if we were to add a to b and c , the sum would be represented by $a + b + c$. If we were to add a to $-b$, the sum would be $a - b$. To add a to b to a to b , the sum would be $a + b + a + b$. But here it must be observed, that $a + a$ is the same as $2a$, and $b + b$ is the same as $2b$; therefore the sum will be $2a + 2b$. Therefore, to add the same quantities, or such as are expressed by the same letters, it will suffice to prefix to the same letter such a number as shall contain so many units, as are the times that the letter should be repeated. Thus, the sum of ac to ac to ac , that is, $ac + ac + ac$, will make $3ac$, and this number is called *the Numeral Co-efficient* of the quantity. And if the quantities to be added, being denominated by the same letter, shall have different co-efficients, those co-efficients are to be added by the ordinary rules of Arithmetick. Thus the sum of $2a$ and $5a$, together with b and $4b$, will be $7a + 5b$. And thus the sum of a and $3b$, and $-2c$, and $7c$, and $5a$, will be $a + 3b - 2c + 7c + 5a$. But $a + 5a$ will make $6a$, and $-2c + 7c$ make $5c$. Therefore the sum will be $6a + 3b + 5c$.

Subtraction of Simple Quantities, being Integers.

6. To subtract one quantity from another, the sign must be changed of that quantity which is to be subtracted, and then with it's sign so changed it must be wrote with the other. Thus to subtract b from a , we must write $a - b$; where it may be observed, that if a is a quantity greater than b , the remainder of the subtraction, or the difference, will be positive. But if b is greater than a , in that case the difference will be a negative quantity. To subtract aff from bbc , it will make $bbc - aff$. To subtract $2a$ from $5a$, it will make $5a - 2a$; but $5a$ lessened by $2a$ make $3a$, so that the remainder will be $3a$. And to subtract $-b$ from a , it must be written $a + b$. Nor should it seem strange, that to subtract the negative quantity $-b$ it must become positive, that the remainder

may be $a + b$; for as much as to subtract one quantity from another is the same thing as to find the difference between those quantities. Now the difference between a and $-b$ is $a + b$, just in the same manner as the difference between a capital of 100 crowns and a debt of 50 is 150 crowns. For from having an hundred and having none, the difference is an hundred; and from having none to having a debt of fifty, the difference is fifty; therefore, from having an hundred to having a debt of fifty, the difference must be an hundred and fifty. Thus, for the same reason, to subtract b from $-a$, it must be written $-a - b$; and to subtract $-b$ from $-a$, it must be written $-a + b$.

Multiplication of Simple Quantities, being Integers.

Multiplication of simple quantities.

7. Simple quantities are multiplied by writing them one after another, without any sign between, (unless sometimes the mark \times ,) and the resulting quantity is called the *Product*, as also the quantities so multiplied are called the *Factors* or *Multipliers*. But as to the sign which is to be prefixed to these products, the general rule is this; that if the quantities to be multiplied are both positive or both negative, then the positive sign must always be prefixed to the product: but if one of those quantities, whichever it is, is positive, and the other negative, then the negative sign must always be prefixed to the product. The reason of this is, because multiplication is nothing else but a geometrical proportion, of which the first term is unity, the second and third terms are the two quantities which are to be multiplied together, and the fourth term is the product. And therefore being placed in a row, unity for the first term, one of the multipliers for the second, and the other multiplier for the third; therefore, by the nature of geometrical proportion, the fourth must be such a multiple of the third, as the second is a multiple of the first. If the second and third terms are positive, for example, if it is $1 . a :: b .$ to a fourth; the first term or unity being positive, the fourth must therefore be positive. But if the second is negative, and the third positive, that is, if $1 . -a :: b .$ to a fourth; whereas this fourth must be such a multiple of the third as the second is of the first, and the second being negative, therefore the fourth must be negative. Let the second be positive and the third negative, that is, let it be $1 . a :: -b .$ to a fourth. Now, whereas this fourth must be such a multiple of the third, as the second is of the first, and the second and first being positive and the third negative, the fourth cannot be otherwise than negative. Lastly, let both the second and third be negative, that is, let it be $1 . -a :: -b .$ to a fourth. Now the second being here a negative multiple of the first, it follows that the fourth must be a negative multiple of the third. But the third is already negative, and therefore the fourth must be positive. Wherefore the product of a into b will be ab . That of a into $-b$ will be $-ab$. That of $-a$ into b

will also be $-ab$. That of $-a$ into $-b$ will be ab . That of a into b into c will be abc . That of a into $-b$ into c , will be $-abc$; because a into $-b$ will be $-ab$, and $-ab$ into c will be $-abc$. And the product of $-a$ into $-b$ into c will be abc .

If the quantities to be multiplied shall have numeral co-efficients, those co-efficients must be multiplied together by the common rules of numbers, and the product must be prefixed to that of the letters. Hence the product of $6a$ into $-8bc$ will be $-48abc$. And the product of $2a$ into $-2b$ into $-3c$ will be $12abc$. And the like of all others.

8. Now because the product of a into a is aa , that of a into a into a , or of aa into a , is aaa , that of a into a into a into a , or of aaa into a , is $aaaa$, and so on successively; to prevent the repetition of the same letter so often, it is usual to write a^2 instead of aa , a^3 instead of aaa , a^4 instead of $aaaa$, and so of others. That is, we may write a little above the letter such a number as shews the number of times the letter ought to be repeated, which number is called an *Index* or *Exponent*. We may write indifferently aa or a^2 , but higher products or powers are more commonly expressed by their exponents.

9. As the product of a number multiplied by itself is called the *Square* of that number, or it's second power; so if this product is again multiplied by the same number, the new product is called the *Cube* or the third power of the same number. And the product of the cube by the same number is called the *Biquadrate* or fourth power of the same number; and so on. Thus the quantity a multiplied by a , or a^2 , is called the Square of a , or the second power of a ; a^3 is it's cube or third power; a^4 it's fourth power, &c. Therefore $2a$ and a^2 will be very different from each other, the first being the sum of a and a , or $a + a$, the other their product, or aa . The same is to be understood of $3a$ and a^3 , of $4a$ and a^4 ; and so of others. Now as the product of $+$ into $+$, or of $-$ into $-$, is always positive; it proceeds from thence, that as well the square of a as of $-a$ will be always positive, or aa . So on the other hand the cube of a , or a^3 , will always be positive, but the cube of $-a$ will always be negative, or $-a^3$. For $-a$ into $-a$ makes aa , and aa into $-a$ makes $-a^3$. Thus the fourth power as well of $-a$ as of a will be positive. And in general, when the exponent of the power, to which we would raise the given quantity, is an even number, whether the quantity itself is positive or negative, that which results will always be positive. And when the exponent is an odd number, if the quantity is positive, the result will be positive; and if it be negative, the result or power will be negative.

Division.

Division of Simple Quantities, being Integers.

Division,
what.

10. Division is an operation directly contrary to Multiplication; and what this compounds, that again resolves. Thus, because ab is the product of a into b , therefore if we divide ab by a , we shall have b for the quotient. And if we divide it by b , the quotient will be a . So dividing abc by c , we shall have the quotient ab . And so on. The quantity to be divided is called the *Dividend*, that by which the division is performed is called the *Divisor*, and that which results from the division is called the *Quotient*, as in common Arithmetick. Therefore whenever in the dividend and the divisor the same quantities are found, they may be taken out of both, or as it were cancelled, and what is left will give the quotient. Thus, if we are to divide aa by a , the quotient will be a . If we divide a^3 by a , the quotient will be aa . If we divide a^3b^3 by a^2b^2 , the quotient will be ab . If the dividend and divisor shall have numeral co-efficients besides, they are also to be divided by the common rules of Arithmetick, and the resulting numeral co-efficient must be prefixed to the literal quotient. Thus, if we divide $3a^3b^3$ by $3b^3$, the quotient will be a^3 . Dividing $56a^2b^3$ by $8ab$, the quotient will be $7ab^2$. And here it may be observed, that whenever the quantity to be divided is the same as the divisor, then the quotient will be unity; as dividing b by b , $7a^3$ by $7a^3$, and such like. The reason of which is plain, because to divide is to find how often the divisor is contained in the dividend, the answer of which question is the quotient.

When quo-
tients are to
be repre-
sented as
fractions.

11. Wherefore, in the divisor and dividend, when no common quantities or letters are found, by means of which the division may be performed in the foregoing manner, the quotients will receive the form of fractions. Thus, to divide a by b , a^3 by bc , $5aabb$ by $2cc$, &c. the quotients are to be wrote thus:

$\frac{a}{b}$, $\frac{a^3}{bc}$, $\frac{5aabb}{2cc}$, &c: that is, place the dividend above, and the divisor

under it, with a little line between them; and it is to be understood, that a ought to be divided by b , a^3 by bc , &c; and these are called *Fractions*, in which the quantity above the line is called the *Numerator*, and that below is the *Denominator*. Thus if any of the letters of the divisor, but not all, shall be in common with the letters of the dividend, those that are common are to be taken away from each, and of those that remain a fraction is to be formed. Thus, if

we were to divide a^3bb by $5abcc$, the quotient will be $\frac{a^3bb}{5abcc}$, or $\frac{a^2b}{5cc}$. And if

we divide $10ab^3$ by $15bcc$, the quotient will be $\frac{2abb}{3cc}$. And so of all others.

12. Now,

12. Now, because both the dividend and divisor may be either positive or negative, it is necessary in every combination of cases to fix a rule, for the sign which is to be prefixed to the quotient. This rule is the same as that which serves for multiplication. That is to say, that if the dividend and the divisor have both the same sign, whether positive or negative, the quotient will be always positive. But if they have contrary signs, the quotient must be negative. The demonstration depends on that of multiplication. For as multiplication is a proportion, of which the first term is unity, the second and third are the two multipliers, and the fourth is the product; so division is the same proportion, but inverted. Of this the first term is the dividend, the second the divisor, the third is the quotient, and the fourth is unity. Let it be required to divide $\pm ab$ by $\pm b$. Then the proportion will be $\pm ab . \pm b :: *a . 1$. Here I place the mark $*$ before the third term or quotient, as not yet knowing whether it ought to be positive or negative. Now, considering this proportion to be like that of multiplication, but the terms placed inversely, it is known that when the second term b is positive, the first term ab cannot be positive, unless the third term a is positive also; and the second b being negative, the first ab cannot be negative, unless the third a be positive. Wherefore, in division, when the two first terms, or the dividend and divisor, are both positive or both negative, the third term, or quotient, must necessarily be positive. In like manner, in this proportion, the second term b cannot be positive and the first ab negative, or the second b negative and the first ab positive, unless the third a be negative. So that in division, the dividend being positive and the divisor negative, or on the contrary, the quotient of necessity must be negative.

13. For this reason it will be the same thing whether we write (for example) $\frac{a}{-b}$, or $\frac{-a}{b}$; because if a positive is to be divided by b negative, or if a negative is to be divided by b positive, in both cases the quotient must be negative. Thus it will be the same to write $\frac{-a}{-b}$, or $\frac{a}{b}$.

Signs reciprocal in simple fractions.

Extraction of the Roots of Simple Quantities, being Integers.

14. As quantities have their several powers, the square, the cube, the bi-quadrato, the fourth power, &c, so among the roots of such powers there is the square-root or second root, the cube-root or third root, the fourth root, &c. The denomination of roots is the same as that of the exponents of powers. Therefore the index or exponent of the square-root is 2, of the cube-root is 3, &c. And to extract the root of a given quantity, we must find such another quantity, as being multiplied into itself as many times, all but one, as are the units

Roots of simple quantities extracted.

units in the index of the root, shall have for the product the quantity whose root is proposed to be extracted. Thus a will be the square-root of aa , the cube-root of a^3 , the biquadratick-root of a^4 , &c. In the same manner the square-root of $aabb$ will be ab , of $16aabbcc$ will be $4abc$; the cube-root of $27a^3x^3$ will be $3ax$; and so of others.

Signs of roots.
Impossible
roots.

15. And since the product of *minus* into *minus* is always *plus*, as above; thence it follows that the square-root of aa will be either a or $-a$, that is $\pm a$. It is not so with the cube-root, which will always be positive if the given cube is positive, and will be negative if this be negative; for the cube of a will be a^3 , and the cube of $-a$ will be $-a^3$. But the fourth root will be either positive or negative. And to speak in general, the roots whose index is an even number will always be either positive or negative; but those whose index is an odd number will be positive if the power proposed be positive, and negative if that be negative. And hence it is, from the same property of the signs in multiplication, that no positive or negative quantity can ever produce a negative power having an even exponent. So that it is impossible to find the root of a negative power with an even exponent. Such roots as these, of a negative quantity with an even index, are therefore called *Impossible* or *Imaginary*. Thus the square-root of $-aa$ will be imaginary, as also the fourth root of $-a^4$, the sixth root of $-a^6$, &c. But such as these will be true and real roots, the cube-root of $-a^3$, the fifth root of $-a^5$, &c.

Roots ex-
tracted of
imperfect
powers.

16. But for the generality the quantities proposed, of which we are to extract the roots, will not be true squares, cubes, or other powers, which are produced by the multiplication of rational quantities into themselves, but will be the products of another kind; as ab , abc , &c: in which case we make use of the mark $\sqrt{}$, called the *Radical Sign* or *Vinculum*. Hence $\sqrt[2]{ab}$, or simply \sqrt{ab} , denotes the square-root of ab ; $\sqrt[3]{abc}$ denotes the cube-root of abc . And thus $\sqrt[4]{}$ stands for the fourth or biquadratick-root, $\sqrt[5]{}$ stands for the fifth root, &c. And such quantities as these, affected by a radical sign or vinculum, are called *Surds*, or *Irrational Quantities*.

Addition of Compound Quantities, being Integers.

Compound
quantities
added.

17. By the addition or subtraction of simple quantities, compound quantities are produced. Therefore, to add these together, it is sufficient to write them one after another with their proper signs. So to add $a + b$ to $c - d$, we may write $a + b + c - d$. To add $2aa - xx$ to $3cc + 2yy$, the sum will be $2aa - xx + 3cc + 2yy$. To add $aa - xx$ to $bb + xx + yy$, we shall have $aa - xx + bb + xx + yy$; but here it is to be observed, that $-xx$ and $+xx$ remove

remove or destroy each other, and therefore may both be cancelled or omitted, and then the sum will be $aa + bb + yy$. To add $2aa - 5bb$ to $aa + 2bb + yy$, the sum will be $2aa - 5bb + aa + 2bb + yy$; but here $2aa + aa$ make $3aa$, and $-5bb + 2bb$ make $-3bb$, and therefore the sum will be $3aa - 3bb + yy$.

Subtraction of Compound Quantities, being Integers.

18. The signs must be changed of that quantity which is to be subtracted, and then with the signs so changed it is to be wrote after that, from which the subtraction is to be made. Thus to subtract $c - d$ from $a + b$, we must write them thus, $a + b - c + d$; and the reason is plain. For if we were to subtract only the quantity c , we should write $a + b - c$. And now having subtracted too much, (for we ought to have subtracted only $c - d$, or the difference between c and d), having subtracted, I say, more than we ought by the quantity d , to make amends we must add d , and so write the remainder $a + b - c + d$. The same is to be done for quantities more compounded. To subtract $a + 3b$ from $3a + 2b$, it will be wrote $3a + 2b - a - 3b$; but by a reduction of similar terms, because $3a - a$ is $2a$, and $2b - 3b$ is $-b$, the remainder will become $2a - b$. To subtract $3ab - 2bc + 2cd$ from $5ab - 4bc + 2cd$, after a proper reduction the remainder will be $2ab - 2bc$.

Multiplication of Compound Quantities, being Integers.

19. The rule for the multiplication of simple quantities being understood, that for compound quantities will be very easy. Let one of the factors be wrote under the other, as is usual in the vulgar Arithmetick, and then all the terms of the multiplicand must be multiplied successively by every term of the multiplier, according to the rules already given for the multiplication of simple quantities; and what results, after the usual reduction of similar terms, will be

the product required. Thus if we are to multiply $a + b - c$ by x , let them be wrote as in the margin. Then let every term of the multiplicand, placed above, be multiplied by the multiplier placed under it, and the product will be $ax + bx - cx$, as by the operation. Thus if we were to multiply

$$\begin{array}{r} a + b - c \\ x \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$ax + bx - cx$$

$$ax + bx - cx$$

C

multiply

$$\begin{array}{r}
 2a + 3b - c \\
 3x - 2y \\
 \hline
 6ax + 9bx - 3cx \\
 - 4ay - 6by + 2cy
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 aa + xx \\
 aa - xx \\
 \hline
 a^4 + a^2x^2 \\
 - a^2x^2 - x^4
 \end{array}$$

multiply $2a + 3b - c$ by $3x - 2y$, let them be placed as in the margin. Then multiply all the terms above by $3x$, and do the same by the other term $- 2y$, and so if there were more terms in the multiplier. The product will be as is here to be seen. It is no matter whether the operation begins from the right hand or from the left, in regard to either of the factors; or which of them is wrote above, and the other below; or in what order the terms are placed. Suppose we were to multiply $aa + xx$ by $aa - xx$; proceed as in the margin, where because $aaxx$ and $- aaxx$ destroy each other, the product will be reduced to $a^4 - x^4$.

In long multiplications, in order to reduce similar terms with greater ease, it will be convenient to write those similar terms, which will arise from the multiplication, one under another as in the foregoing and following example. Let it be proposed to multiply $4a^3 + 3a^2b - 2ab^2 + b^3$ by $a^2 - 5ab + 6b^2$. The

$$\begin{array}{r}
 4a^3 + 3a^2b - 2ab^2 + b^3 \\
 a^2 - 5ab + 6b^2 \\
 \hline
 4a^5 + 3a^4b - 2a^3b^2 + a^2b^3 \\
 - 20a^4b - 15a^3b^2 + 10a^2b^3 - 5ab^4 \\
 + 24a^3b^2 + 18a^2b^3 - 12ab^4 + 6b^5
 \end{array}$$

work will stand as in the margin. Here it is easily perceived, that $+ 3a^4b - 20a^4b$ make $- 17a^4b$. And that $- 2a^3b^2 - 15a^3b^2 + 24a^3b^2$ make $7a^3b^2$. And that $+ a^2b^3 + 10a^2b^3 + 18a^2b^3$ make $29a^2b^3$. And that $- 5ab^4 - 12ab^4$ make $- 17ab^4$. Therefore the product is $4a^5 - 17a^4b + 7a^3b^2 + 29a^2b^3 - 17ab^4 + 6b^5$.

Multiplication how insinuated.

20. Sometimes it will be unnecessary actually to perform the multiplication in this manner, but it may be sufficient to insinuate it only, which is commonly done by inserting this mark \times , and drawing a line or *vinculum* over each of the multipliers, extended over all the terms which enter the multiplication. Thus $\overline{aa + xx} \times \overline{aa - xx}$ denotes the product of $aa + xx$ by $aa - xx$. But in the quantity $\overline{aa + xx} \times \overline{aa - xx} \pm a^4$, the term $\pm a^4$, not being included in the vinculum, is not intended to be comprehended in the multiplication. So that being wrote in this manner it must be understood, that to or from the product of $aa + xx$ into $aa - xx$, must be further added or subtracted the term a^4 .

Powers of compound quantities how insinuated: how actually formed.

21. After the same manner that in simple quantities the product of a into a is called the square of a , the product of aa into a is called the cube of a , the product of a^3 into a is called the biquadrate of a , &c. So in compound quantities the product of $a + b$ (for example) into $a + b$, or $\overline{a + b} \times \overline{a + b}$, is called the square of $a + b$, which is wrote thus, $\overline{a + b}^2$, when we would not actually form it by multiplication. In the same manner $\overline{a + b}^2 \times \overline{a + b}$ will be the cube, which may be wrote thus, $\overline{a + b}^3$; and $\overline{a + b}^3 \times \overline{a + b}$, or $\overline{a + b}^4$.

$\overline{a+b}^2 \times \overline{a+b}^2$, or $\overline{a+b}^4$ will be the fourth power of $a+b$. And this is to be understood of quantities of any number of terms.

Actually to form these powers, the quantity given must be multiplied into itself, and the product by the same quantity successively, as many times, save one, as the exponent of the power required contains unity. But for the second power, or the square, the operation may be thus abbreviated. If the quantity given is a binomial, or consists only of two terms, suppose $a \pm b$, write down the square of the first term, then the two rectangles, or twice the product of the first term by the second, with such a sign as the rule of multiplication requires; and lastly the square of the second term must be added. Thus $\overline{a+b}^2$ will be $aa + 2ab + bb$; and $\overline{a-b}^2$ will be $aa - 2ab + bb$. Also $\overline{-a-b}^2$ will be $aa + 2ab + bb$. If the quantity given is a trinomial, or consists of three terms; besides the square of the two first terms found as before, must be wrote two rectangles of the first into the third, and also of the second into the third, (taking care that these rectangles may have their proper signs, according to the rules of multiplication,) and lastly the square of the third term. Thus $\overline{a+b-c}^2$ will be $aa + 2ab + bb - 2ac - 2bc + cc$. If the quantity is a quadrinomial, or of four terms, there must be wrote besides, twice the rectangles of the three first terms into the fourth, and also the square of the fourth term. And so on to other multinomials.

22. But as to all binomial quantities, the following general canon will be of Powers raised good use, not only to raise it to the square, but to any power denoted by m , by the *Binomial Theorem* where m stands for any number whatever. Therefore let $p+q$ be to be raised of Sir I. N.

to the power m ; this power will be $p^m + mp^{m-1}q + m \times \frac{m-1}{2} p^{m-2}q^2 + m \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} p^{m-3}q^3 + m \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} \times \frac{m-3}{4} p^{m-4}q^4$, &c.; which series of terms may be continued as far as we please, observing the same law.

From hence let us derive the square of $p+q$. In this case m will be 2, and therefore in this canon, by substituting 2 instead of m , the first term will be p^2 ;

the second $2p^{2-1}q$, that is $2pq$; the third will be $2 \times \frac{2-1}{2} p^{2-2}q^2$, that is q^2 .

(Here we do not admit the quantity p , because being raised to no power, it is equal to unity, as will be shown afterwards. And the fourth term will be

$2 \times \frac{2-1}{2} \times \frac{2-2}{3} p^{2-3}q^3$. But $2-2$ in the co-efficient is equal to nothing,

and therefore this term being multiplied by nothing will be nothing, or will vanish. And thus since all the following terms are multiplied by nothing, they will all vanish, and the canon will terminate after three terms. So then the square required will be $pp + 2pq + qq$.

If we would have the cube or third power of $p + q$, then $m = 3$; whence the fifth term of the canon, and all the following ones, will be equal to nothing. So that the power required, by substituting 3 instead of m , will be $p^3 + 3p^2q + 3pq^2 + q^3$. If the quantity to be raised is $p - q$, it will be sufficient to place the sign *minus* before all the terms, in which the index of q is an odd number.

The foregoing canon will not only serve for the binomial $p \pm q$, but for any other whatever. So that if we would have the third power of $2ax - xx$, we must suppose $p = 2ax$, and $q = -xx$, as also $m = 3$. Then in the canon, instead of p and the powers of p , we must substitute $2ax$ and it's powers; which must also be done by putting $-xx$ instead of q and it's corresponding powers. Then instead of m put 3, and the cube will be $8a^3x^3 - 12aax^4 + 6ax^5 - x^6$.

It may likewise serve for any polynome, or for any quantity consisting of more terms than two. Let there be a trinomial $a + b - c$ to be raised to the third power, and then it will be $m = 3$. If we make $p = a$ and $q = b - c$, and substitute a and it's powers instead of p and it's powers, and also $b - c$ and it's powers instead of q and it's powers; the cube will be $a^3 + 3aa \times \overline{b - c} + 3a \times \overline{b - c}^2 + \overline{b - c}^3$; that is, $a^3 + 3a^2b - 3a^2c + 3ab^2 - 6abc + 3ac^2 + b^3 - 3b^2c + 3bc^2 - c^3$.

Division of Compound Quantities, being Integers.

Compound
quantities
divided.

23. There may be three different cases, or combinations, in the division of compound quantities; the first is, when the quantity to be divided is compound, and the divisor is simple; the second is on the contrary, when the divisor is compound, and the dividend simple; the third is when they are both compound quantities. As to the two first cases, it will suffice to make use of the rule for simple quantities. In the first case every term of the quantity proposed is divided by the divisor, and there will arise either integers or fractions, as follows from the nature of division of simple quantities. Thus if we are to divide $aa + ab - ac$ by a , we shall have for the quotient $a + b - c$. If we are to divide $4ab - 6bc + xx$ by $2b$, we shall have $2a - 3c + \frac{xx}{2b}$. If we are to divide $4ab - cc + 3xx$ by $3c$, we shall have $\frac{4ab - cc + 3xx}{3c}$, or else $\frac{4ab}{3c} - \frac{c}{3} + \frac{xx}{c}$. In the second case the divisor is wrote under the dividend, as is usual in fractions; and if in every term of the numerator and denominator

nator there shall be any common quantity, it may be cancelled; then what remains will always be a fraction. Thus dividing $3a^3b$ by $aa - ax + ab$, the quotient will be $\frac{3aab}{a-x+b}$. And if we divide $6a^4$ by $2aa - 2ax + 2xx$, the quotient will be $\frac{3a^4}{aa - ax + xx}$.

24. In the third case it is necessary, first to put the terms of the dividend in order, and likewise of the divisor, in respect to some certain letter which shall be thought the most proper for that purpose. This is done by writing that for the first term of the dividend, and also of the divisor, in which that letter is found of the highest power, or of most dimensions. Then making that the second term, in which that letter is of the next greatest power. And so successively till we come to those terms, which are not affected by that letter at all, which therefore must be made the last. Thus the quantity $a^3 + 2a^2c - a^2b - 3abc + b^2c$ will be ordered in respect of the letter a , and also the divisor $a - b$. If we would dispose this in order, in respect of the letter b , it must be done thus; $b^2c - 3abc - a^2b + a^3 + 2a^2c$; and the divisor thus, $-b + a$.

This supposed, the division must be performed after this manner. The first term of the dividend must be divided by the first term of the divisor, and the quotient must be written on one side. By this quotient the whole divisor must be multiplied, and the product subtracted from the dividend. When the subtraction is made, and the terms reduced, in the same manner the first term of the remainder must be divided by the first term of the divisor, and this term of the quotient must be wrote after the other, with such sign as it ought to have. Then the whole divisor must be multiplied by this second quotient, and the product subtracted from the dividend, that is from the first remainder. And proceeding in this manner, the calculation must be repeated, till at last there is no remainder. Then the sum of all these quotients, thus found by parts, will be the whole quotient of the division.

Let it be required to divide $a^3 + 2a^2c - a^2b - 3abc + b^2c$ by $a - b$. Let the quantity to be divided be wrote at A, the divisor at B. Now dividing a^3 by a , the quotient will be a^2 , which is written at D. Then finding the product of the quotient into the divisor, and subtracting it from the dividend, there will be left the first remainder, as at M. Then dividing the first term $2aac$ in this remainder M by the said first term of the divisor a , and writing the quotient $2ac$ after the other at D, we must subtract the product of $2ac$ into the divisor B, and we shall have the second remainder N. Divide the first term $-abc$ of this second remainder by the same term a of the divisor, and write the quotient $-bc$ at D after the other. The product of $-bc$ into the divisor must be subtracted from the second remainder, and nothing will now remain. Therefore the compleat quotient will be $aa + 2ac - bc$.

A. a^3

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{A. } a^3 + 2a^2c - a^2b - 3abc + b^2c & \text{B. } a - b \\
 \text{M. } 2a^2c - 3abc + b^2c & \text{D. } aa + 2ac - bc. \\
 \text{N. } -abc + b^2c &
 \end{array}$$

Let $a^3 - 3a^2b + 3ab^2 - b^3$ be to be divided by $a - b$. Let the dividend be wrote at A, and the divisor at B. Let the first term a^3 be divided by a , and the quotient aa be wrote at D. Then finding the product of the quotient into the divisor, and subtracting it from the dividend, there will be left the first remainder M. Let the first term of this remainder, that is $-2a^2b$, be divided by the same first term of the divisor a , and let the quotient $-2ab$ be wrote after the other at D. Then let the product of $-2ab$ into the divisor be subtracted from the first remainder M, and we shall have the second remainder N. If we divide the first term ab^2 of this second remainder by the same first term of the divisor a , the quotient bb must be wrote at D after the other. Then let the product of bb into the divisor B be subtracted from the second remainder N, and nothing will remain; so that the whole quotient will be $aa - 2ab + bb$.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{A. } a^3 - 3a^2b + 3ab^2 - b^3 & \text{B. } a - b \\
 \text{M. } -2a^2b + 3ab^2 - b^3 & \text{D. } aa - 2ab + bb \\
 \text{N. } +ab^2 - b^3 &
 \end{array}$$

Another Example.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{A. } 2aa + 5ab + 2bb - ac - 2bc & \text{B. } a + 2b \\
 \text{M. } +ab + 2bb - ac - 2bc & \text{D. } 2a + b - c \\
 \text{N. } -ac - 2bc &
 \end{array}$$

Another.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{A. } 9d^4 + 12d^3e - 4de^3 - e^4 & \text{B. } 3d^2 - e^2 \\
 \text{M. } 12d^3e + 3d^2e^2 - 4de^3 - e^4 & \text{D. } 3d^2 + 4de + e^2 \\
 \text{N. } 3d^2e^2 - e^4 &
 \end{array}$$

Another.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{A. } 4a^2 + 4ab - 2ac + b^2 - c^2 & \text{B. } 2a + b \\
 \text{M. } 2ab - 2ac + b^2 - c^2 & \text{D. } 2a + b - c \\
 \text{N. } -2ac - c^2 & \\
 \text{O. } bc - c^2 &
 \end{array}$$

Now here it is to be observed, that the last remainder at O is not divisible by $2a$, and consequently the operation cannot proceed, but it must remain as a fraction $\frac{bc - cc}{2a + b}$. That is to say, that the quantity proposed is not entirely

divisible by $2a + b$, but only in part, and therefore the quotient will be partly an integer, and partly a fraction, as $2a + b - c + \frac{bc - cc}{2a + b}$. Or the whole may be wrote as a fraction thus, $\frac{4aa + 4ab - 2ac + bb - cc}{2a + b}$.

Extraction of the Roots of Compound Quantities, being Integers.

25. As in simple quantities, so in compound; the root of any quantity is that, which being multiplied into itself, if once produces the given square, if twice produces the given cube, and so on.

Roots how
to be ex-
tracted; par-
ticularly the
square-root.

The manner of extracting the square-root in compound quantities is as follows: It being first understood, that the terms must be disposed in order, according to some one of it's letters, agreeably to the caution before given, § 24.

Let the given quantity be $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$, whose root is to be extracted, and let it be wrote down as at A. Extract the square-root of the first term a^2 , which will be a , and let it be wrote as at B. The square of this, or a^2 , must be subtracted from the quantity proposed, A, and the remainder wrote down at D. Then the quantity a , wrote down at B, must be doubled, and wrote as at M, which will be $2a$. By this quantity $2a$ the first term at D must be divided, and the quotient b wrote at B. Then the divisor $2a$ must be multiplied by the quotient b , and the product subtracted from the quantity D; and moreover the square of b must be subtracted from the same; and as there is no remainder, the root required will be $a + b$.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{A. } a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \\ \text{D. } \quad \quad 2ab + b^2 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{B. } a + b \\ \text{M. } 2a \end{array}$$

Let the quantity given be $a^4 + 6a^3b + 5a^2b^2 - 12ab^3 + 4b^4$; let it be wrote at A, and let the square root of the first term be extracted, which is a^2 , and let this root be wrote at B. Let the square of a^2 be subtracted from the quantity A, and there will remain the quantity D. Let a^2 be doubled and wrote at M, and by this double, that is by $2a^2$, let the first term be divided of the first remainder D, and the quotient $3ab$ be wrote at B. Then subtracting the product of $3ab$ into the divisor $2aa$, as also the square of $3ab$, from the first remainder D, there will be left the second remainder H. Let the whole quantity B be doubled, and wrote at G. By it's first term let the first term of H be divided, and the quotient $-2b^2$ be wrote at B. Then subtracting the product of the quotient into the divisor G, and also the square of the same quotient,

quotient, from the quantity H; and, as there is no remainder, the quantity written at B, that is, $aa + 3ab - 2bb$, will be the root required.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A. } a^4 + 6a^3b + 5a^2b^2 - 12ab^3 + 4b^4 & \text{B. } a^2 + 3ab - 2b^2 \\ \text{D. } 6a^3b + 5a^2b^2 - 12ab^3 + 4b^4 & \text{M. } 2a^2 \\ \text{H. } -4a^2b^2 - 12ab^3 + 4b^4 & \text{G. } 2a^2 + 6ab \end{array}$$

The Operation of another Example.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A. } y^4 + 4ay^3 - 8a^3y + 4a^4 & \text{B. } y^2 + 2ay - 2a^2 \\ \text{D. } 4ay^3 - 8a^3y + 4a^4 & \text{M. } 2y^2 \\ \text{H. } -4a^2y^2 - 8a^3y + 4a^4 & \text{G. } 2y^2 + 4ay \end{array}$$

Another Example.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A. } 16a^4 - 24a^2x^2 - 16a^2b^2 + 12b^2x^2 + 9x^4 & \text{B. } 4a^2 - 3x^2 - 2b^2 \\ \text{D. } -24a^2x^2 - 16a^2b^2 + 12b^2x^2 + 9x^4 & \text{M. } 8a^2 \\ \text{H. } -16a^2b^2 + 12b^2x^2 & \text{G. } 8a^2 - 6x^2 \\ \text{K. } -4b^4 & \end{array}$$

In this last operation there is a remainder of $-4b^4$, which cannot be divided by $8a^2$, as the method requires, which in this case cannot take place. That is to say, that the square-root of the proposed quantity cannot be actually extracted, and therefore we must make use of the radical sign, as above at § 16; which expedient must also be applied in other extractions, as the cube-root, the biquadratick-root, &c. Thus $\sqrt{aa + bb}$ represents the square-root of $aa + bb$; and $\sqrt[3]{aab - abb}$ will stand for the cubic root of $aab - abb$; and the like for other roots.

The cube-root extracted.

26. As to the cube-root, let it be required to extract the root of the quantity $a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$, as is written below at A. Extract the cube-root of the first term a^3 , which is a , and is written at B. Let the cube of this, or a^3 , be subtracted from the given quantity A, and let the remainder be written at D. Then take the triple of the square of a , which is $3aa$, and let it be wrote at M, by which divide the first term of the remainder D, and let the quotient b be wrote at B. By this multiply the divisor $3aa$, and the product, together with the triple of the square of b into a , and the cube of b , must be subtracted from the remainder D. And as nothing remains, $a + b$ will be the root required.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A. } a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3 & \text{B. } a + b \\ \text{D. } 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3 & \text{M. } 3aa \end{array}$$

Let it be required to extract the cube-root of the quantity $z^6 + 6bz^5 - 40b^3z^3 + 96b^5z - 64b^6$.

Extract

Extract the root of the first term z^6 , which is z^2 , and let it be wrote at B. Let the cube of B be subtracted from the proposed quantity A, and let the remainder be wrote at D. Take the triple of the square of B, and write it at M, and by that divide the first term of the remainder D, and write the quotient $2bz$ at B. Then subtract the product of $2bz$ into the quantity M, and moreover the triple of the square of $2bz$ multiplied into zz , with the cube of $2bz$, from the remainder D, and write the remainder at H. Then find the triple of the square of B, which write in G, and by the first term divide the first term of the remainder H, and write the quotient $-4bb$ in B. Then multiply this quotient by the quantity G, and the product, together with the triple of the square of $-4bb$ into $2z + 2bz$, and the cube of $-4bb$ must be subtracted from the quantity H, and nothing will remain. Whence the cube-root of the quantity proposed will be the whole quantity B, that is, $zz + 2bz - 4bb$.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A. } z^6 + 6bz^5 - 40b^3z^3 + 96b^5z - 64b^6 & \text{B. } z^2 + 2bz - 4b^2 \\ \text{D. } 6bz^5 - 40b^3z^3 + 96b^5z - 64b^6 & \text{M. } 3z^4 \\ \text{H. } -12b^2z^4 - 48b^3z^3 + 96b^5z - 64b^6 & \text{G. } 3z^4 + 12bz^3 + 12b^2z^2 \end{array}$$

After the same manner is extracted the cube-root of the following quantity.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A. } 27y^6 - 54cy^5 + 144c^2y^4 - 152c^3y^3 + 192c^4y^2 - 96c^5y + 64c^6 & \\ \text{D. } -54cy^5 + 144c^2y^4 - 152c^3y^3 + 192c^4y^2 - 96c^5y + 64c^6 & \\ \text{H. } 108c^2y^4 - 144c^3y^3 + 192c^4y^2 - 96c^5y + 64c^6 & \\ \text{B. } 3y^2 - 2cy + 4c^2 & \\ \text{M. } 27y^4 & \\ \text{G. } 27y^4 - 36cy^3 + 12c^2y^2 & \end{array}$$

27. For the fourth root. Let the quantity proposed be $a^4 + 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 4ab^3 + b^4$. The fourth root extracted, of which we would extract the biquadratick or fourth root. Let root extracted, it be wrote at A, and extract the fourth root of the first term, which is a , and write it at B. Subtract the fourth power of B from the quantity A, and write the remainder at D. Then find the quadruple of the cube of a , and write it at M. By this must be divided the first term of the quantity D, and the quotient b must be wrote at B. From the quantity D must be subtracted the product of the quotient b into the divisor $4a^3$, and moreover the sextuple of the square of b into the square of a , and the product of the quadruple of the cube of b into the quantity a , and lastly the biquadrate of b . And as there is no remainder, the root required will be $a + b$.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{A. } a^4 + 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 4ab^3 + b^4 & \text{B. } a + b \\ \text{D. } 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 4ab^3 + b^4 & \text{M. } 4a^3 \end{array}$$

D

28. As

The fifth and higher roots extracted.

28. As to the fifth root ; in order to discover in what manner the operations proceed, which are to be made in the extraction, it will be sufficient to form the fifth power of a binomial, suppose of $a + b$, which will give a rule here ; as the second, third, and fourth powers of the same binomial have supplied us with rules for the extraction of the second, third, and fourth roots. The like obtains in the sixth, seventh, and other roots.

Of Fractions, Simple and Compound.

Notation of fractions.

29. We have seen before, how fractions or broken numbers arise from the division of quantities. Therefore a fraction insinuates a division that is to be made, of the numerator by the denominator. Whence it proceeds, that if the

numerator is the same as the denominator, as $\frac{a}{a}$, or $\frac{aa - bb}{aa - bb}$, and such like,

those fractions can signify nothing else but unity ; because in fact, if we divide a by a , or $aa - bb$ by $aa - bb$, the quotient will be unity. And because multiplication is an operation contrary to division, it is plain, that any integer whatever may be reduced to a fraction with what denominator we please, if it is multiplied by the quantity which is to be the denominator, and then divided by it again. Thus to reduce the integer a to a fraction with the denominator b ,

we must write $\frac{ab}{b}$. To reduce $a - b$ to a fraction with the denominator d ,

we must write $\frac{ad - bd}{d}$. To reduce $a + b$ to a fraction whose denominator

shall be $c - d$, we must write $\frac{a+b \times c-d}{c-d}$, or $\frac{ac + bc - ad - bd}{c-d}$.

Reduction of Fractions to more simple Expressions.

How fractions are to be reduced.

30. When fractions have the same letter or letters in every term of the numerator and denominator, it will be sufficient to expunge the common letters in both ; having regard to their powers, as is said in Division, at § 10. Thus

$\frac{a^3b^2}{ac}$ will become $\frac{a^2b^2}{c}$; $\frac{ab^3}{abc}$ will be $\frac{bb}{c}$; $\frac{a^3b - x^3b}{ab - bb}$ will be $\frac{a^3 - x^3}{a - b}$. But

though there are not the same letters in both the numerator and denominator, yet if each of them is multiplied by the same compound quantity, they may be

divided by it again, and consequently the fraction may be reduced. Thus

$\frac{aac - aad}{cd - dd}$, that is $\frac{aa \times \overline{c-d}}{d \times \overline{c-d}}$, will be reduced to $\frac{aa}{d}$. So $\frac{\overline{aa+2ab}^2}{aab+2abb}$, that is

$\frac{\overline{aa+2ab} \times \overline{aa+2ab}}{b \times \overline{aa+2ab}}$, will be reduced to $\frac{aa+2ab}{b}$. So $\frac{aac - aad - acd + add}{cd - dd}$, or

$\frac{\overline{aa-ad} \times \overline{c-d}}{d \times \overline{c-d}}$, will be reduced to $\frac{aa - ad}{d}$.

Therefore in general, as often as the fraction is such, that it's numerator and denominator are both divisible by one and the same quantity, which in this case is called their common divisor, by actually dividing both, the two quotients will give the fraction reduced. But it must be observed, that, if that common divisor is not the greatest that can be, the fraction indeed will be reduced, but not to

the simplest expression. Thus the fraction $\frac{a^3 - abb}{aac + abc}$, that is $\frac{a \times \overline{a+b} \times \overline{a-b}}{a \times c \times \overline{a+b}}$,

may be divided, both as to it's numerator and denominator, by a , by $a+b$, and by $aa+ab$, the greatest of which divisors is $aa+ab$. And as the fraction should be reduced to it's least terms, we must divide it by $aa+ab$, and the

quotient or fraction reduced will be $\frac{a-b}{c}$. But very often it will be difficult

to know if there is a common divisor, and what it is; and therefore we shall give a rule to find it, at § 36. afterwards. At present we shall omit it, that we may not too much discourage young learners, as yet not sufficiently confirmed, and shall proceed to other operations; making use of fractions that are any how reduced to lower and simpler expressions.

Reduction of Fractions to a Common Denominator.

31. If two fractions are given, let the numerator of the first be multiplied by the denominator of the second, and the numerator of the second be multiplied by the denominator of the first, and each product be divided by the product of the two denominators. Thus $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{x}{y}$ will be $\frac{ay + bx}{by}$; and $\frac{a^3}{y^2} - \frac{2x^2}{3b}$ will be $\frac{3a^3b - 2x^2y^2}{3by^2}$. Also $\frac{aa + xx}{m+n} - \frac{aa}{m}$ will be $\frac{ma^2 + mx^2 - ma^2 - na^2}{mm + mn}$, that is $\frac{mxx - naa}{mm + mn}$. But here we must take notice, that as often as the two denominators of the fractions have a greatest common divisor, in this case the multiplication

plication of the numerators into that common divisor is superfluous, and also of those common divisors into each other, for forming a new denominator; for then it may be necessary to reduce the fractions to more simple expressions. Wherefore the said numerators should be multiplied, not by the denominators, but by the quotients which will result by dividing the said denominators by their common divisors: and the denominator will be the product of those quotients, and of the said common divisor. For example, let there be given $\frac{a^3}{mn} + \frac{abb}{mx}$.

Being reduced as usual to a common denominator, it will be $\frac{ma^3x + mnabb}{mmnx}$; that is $\frac{a^3x + nabb}{mnx}$. Therefore it was needless to multiply the numerators

by m , the common divisor of the denominators, as it was superfluous to multiply the denominators together. It was sufficient to multiply a^3 into x , and abb into n , to form the numerators, and to multiply m into n into x , to form the common denominator. Thus to reduce to a common denominator the fractions

$\frac{a^3 - b^3}{a+b)^2} - \frac{aa}{a+b}$, it will be enough to multiply $-\frac{aa}{a+b}$ into $a+b$, and it will be $\frac{a^3 - b^3 - a^3 - aab}{a+b)^2}$, that is $-\frac{b^3 + aab}{a+b)^2}$. In like manner to reduce to a

common denominator the fractions $\frac{b^4}{a^2c - a^2d} + \frac{a^3 + b^3}{cd - dd}$; because $c - d$ is a common divisor of both the denominators, it will suffice to multiply b^4 by d , and $a^3 + b^3$ by a^2 , as to the numerators; and to multiply a^2 into d into $c - d$, as to the denominator, and therefore it will be $\frac{b^4d + a^5 + a^2b^3}{a^2cd - a^2d^2}$.

If three fractions are to be reduced to a common denominator, let the two first be reduced, then that which results from these with the third; and so on successively if there are more. So to reduce these to a common denominator, $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} - \frac{m}{n}$, let the two first be reduced, and we shall have $\frac{ad + bc}{bd}$. Let

this be reduced with the third, and we shall have $\frac{adn + bcn - bdm}{bdn}$. This may

also be done in respect to integers; for whereas any integer may be considered as a fraction, having unity for its denominator, we may proceed after the same

manner as before. Thus $2aa + \frac{3x^4 - 2y^4}{3x^2 - 8ax}$, that is $\frac{2aa}{1} + \frac{3x^4 - 2y^4}{3x^2 - 8ax}$, will be $\frac{6a^2x^2 - 16a^3x + 3x^4 - 2y^4}{3x^2 - 8ax}$.

Addition and Subtraction of Fractions.

32. Fractions are added by writing them one after another with the same signs. Fractions And on the contrary they are subtracted by changing the signs of the quantities how added to be subtracted. And the same things must be done, if there are integers with and sub-tracted.

the fractions. Thus to add $\frac{aa}{c}$ to $\frac{bb}{c}$, they are wrote $\frac{aa + bb}{c}$. To add $\frac{aa}{c}$

to $\frac{xx}{m} - y$, it must be wrote $\frac{aa}{c} + \frac{xx}{m} - y$; which afterwards (if we please)

may be reduced to a common denominator, and then it will be $\frac{aam + cxx - cmy}{cm}$.

To add $\frac{aab^4}{a^4 - 2a^2b^2 + b^4}$ to $\frac{aabb}{aa - bb}$, the sum will be $\frac{aab^4}{a^4 - 2a^2b^2 + b^4} + \frac{a^2b^2}{aa - bb}$, which

if we would further reduce to a common denominator, we may observe, that the denominator of the first is the square of $aa - bb$; therefore the two denominators have a greatest common divisor $aa - bb$, by which being divided, the quotients will be $aa - bb$ in the first, and unity in the second. Wherefore it will be enough to multiply the numerator of the second fraction by $aa - bb$, and to divide the whole by $a^4 - 2a^2b^2 + b^4$, and the sum required will be

$\frac{a^2b^4 + a^4bb - a^2b^4}{a^4 - 2aabb + b^4}$, that is $\frac{a^4bb}{(aa - bb)^2}$. To subtract $\frac{bb}{c}$ from $\frac{aa}{c}$, it will be wrote

$\frac{aa - bb}{c}$. To subtract $a - \frac{xx}{m}$ from $\frac{yy}{m - n}$, it will be wrote $\frac{yy}{m - n} - a + \frac{xx}{m}$,

which being reduced to a common denominator, if we think fit, will be

$\frac{myy - amn + amn + mxx - nxx}{mm - mn}$. To subtract $\frac{b^4}{4a^2c - 4a^2d}$ from $\frac{a^3 + b^3}{2cd - 2dd}$, it must

be wrote $\frac{a^3 + b^3}{2cd - 2dd} - \frac{b^4}{4a^2c - 4a^2d}$; and to reduce it to a common denominator,

we must multiply $a^3 + b^3$ by $2aa$, and $-b^4$ by d , and the whole must be

divided by $4aacd - 4aadd$; then it will be $\frac{2a^5 + 2aab^3 - b^4d}{4aacd - 4aadd}$.

Multiplication of Fractions.

33. The numerators must be multiplied into one another, and also the deno- Fractions minators, and the new fraction will be the product of the fractions to be mul- how multi-plied. Thus to multiply $\frac{ac}{b}$ into $\frac{bc}{d}$, the product will be $\frac{abcc}{bd}$, which is plied.

reduced

reduced to $\frac{acc}{d}$. To multiply $\frac{2ab}{b+c}$ into $\frac{3aa-bb}{5c}$, it will be wrote thus, $\frac{6a^3b-2ab^3}{5bc+5cc}$. The same must be done if there are integers with them, by considering an integer as a fraction, the denominator of which is unity. Thus to multiply $2a$, or $\frac{2a}{1}$, into $\frac{xx-3yy}{3x}$, the product will be $\frac{2axx-6ayy}{3x}$.

Let it be required to multiply $\frac{aa+bb}{a-b}$ into $a-b$. In this and the like cases, because the quantity which ought to multiply is the same as the denominator of the fraction, it will be sufficient to expunge the denominator, and then the product will be $aa+bb$. If $aa-bb$ is to be multiplied into $\frac{aa-ab}{a+b}$, it may be observed, that $aa-bb$ is the same as $\overline{a+b} \times \overline{a-b}$, and therefore since it would be required to multiply $aa-ab$ into $a+b$ into $a-b$, and afterwards to divide by $a+b$; and because $a+b$ would be a common divisor both of the numerator and the denominator which would thence arise; the multiplication and division by the same $a+b$ may be omitted, and it would be sufficient to multiply the numerator by $a-b$, and the product will be $a^3-2aab+abb$. Thus the product of $\frac{a^3-abb}{xx-yy}$ into $\frac{a^3}{aa-bb}$ will be $\frac{a^4}{xx-yy}$.

Division of Fractions.

Fractions
how divided.

34. The Division of Fractions is performed by multiplying cross-wise, that is, by multiplying the numerator of the dividend by the denominator of the divisor, which product must be the numerator of the fraction which is to be the quotient: and then multiplying the denominator of the dividend into the numerator of the divisor, which product will be the denominator of the quotient. This quotient, if there is occasion, must afterwards be reduced to the most

simple expression. Let it be required to divide $\frac{ab}{c}$ by $\frac{m}{n}$; the quotient will be $\frac{abn}{cm}$. Divide $\frac{ab}{c}$ by $\frac{-m}{n}$; the quotient will be $\frac{abn}{-cm}$, or $\frac{-abn}{cm}$; which is all one by § 13. Let it be required to divide $\frac{a^3-b^3}{a+b}$ by $\frac{aa-ab+bb}{c}$; it will be $\frac{a^3c-b^3c}{a^3+b^3}$.

It

It is easy to perceive, that if the two fractions, the dividend and divisor, shall have the same denominator, it would be needless to multiply them cross-wise. As if we were to divide $\frac{aa}{m}$ by $\frac{c-d}{m}$, in this case it would be enough to divide aa by $c-d$. For by multiplying cross-wise it would be $\frac{aam}{cm-dm}$, and then reducing it to it's least terms, it would be $\frac{aa}{c-d}$. Thus dividing $\frac{a^3-ab^2}{c-d}$ by $\frac{aa+2ab+bb}{c-d}$, the quotient would be $\frac{a^3-ab^2}{aa+2ab+bb}$; but by reduction, because the numerator is $a \times \overline{a+b} \times \overline{a-b}$, and the denominator is $\overline{a+b} \times \overline{a+b}$, it will become $\frac{aa-ab}{a+b}$. After the same manner we must proceed when we are to divide an integer by a fraction, or a fraction by an integer; considering an integer as a fraction whose denominator is unity. Thus dividing the quantity $aa-xx$, or $\frac{aa-xx}{1}$, by $\frac{2yy-3xy}{3a}$, the quotient will be $\frac{3a^3-3axx}{2yy-3xy}$. And so of others.

Extraction of the Roots of Fractions.

35. The root of a fraction is extracted by extracting the root of the numerator, and then of the denominator, and the new fraction arising shall be the root of the fraction proposed. So the square-root of $\frac{aabb}{cc}$ will be $\frac{ab}{c}$. The square-root of $\frac{a^4-2aabb+b^4}{aa+4ab+4bb}$ will be $\frac{aa-bb}{a+2b}$. The square-root of $4aa+\frac{64xx-160ax}{25}$, that is of $\frac{100aa-160ax+64xx}{25}$, will be $\frac{10a-8x}{5}$. The same is to be understood of the cube-root, the biquadratick-root, and all others.

But now if the root cannot be extracted out of both the numerator and denominator, yet possibly it may be extracted out of one of the two. Let it be extracted out of which of the two it can, and before the other let the radical sign be placed. Thus the cube-root of $\frac{a^6}{a^3-x^3}$ will be $\frac{aa}{\sqrt[3]{a^3-x^3}}$. The cube-root of $\frac{a^2x-x^3}{a^3b^3}$ will be $\frac{\sqrt[3]{aax-x^3}}{ab}$. And if the root cannot be extracted

neither

neither out of the numerator nor denominator, then the whole fraction must be included under the radical sign. Thus the square-root of $\frac{x^4 - a^4}{xx + bx}$ will be $\sqrt{\frac{x^4 - a^4}{xx + bx}}$.

Of the greatest Common Divisor of Two Quantities, or Formulas.

Greatest
common
divisor how
found.

36. By a Formula I mean any analytical expression whatever, whether complicate or not, the letters of which representing indeterminate quantities, may be what we please; provided that whatever may be said of that formula is to be understood as said of any other, compounded of other letters, but similar to the first.

To obtain the greatest common divisor of two quantities or formulas; in the first place it must be observed, that if every term of both is multiplied into the same quantity or number, in this case they must be divided by that quantity. Then each of the formulas must be set in order according to any letter at pleasure; that is, that must be made the first term, in which that letter arises to the most dimensions, and then the others in order. Let the two given formulas be $18a^3bx - 8a^4b - 3abx^3 - 8a^2bx^2 + bx^4$, and $6a^3b + bx^3 - abx^2 - 8a^2bx$; which because they are divisible by the letter b , let them be so divided, and then set in order (if you please) according to the letter x . They will be thus, $x^4 - 3ax^3 - 8a^2x^2 + 18a^3x - 8a^4$, and $x^3 - ax^2 - 8a^2x + 6a^3$. This being done, the first term, or that wherein the letter is of most dimensions by which the terms are set in order, must be divided by the like term in the second, namely x^4 divided by x^3 will give x in the quotient. Then the product of this quotient into the divisor must be subtracted from the dividend, and we shall have the first remainder $-2ax^3 + 12a^3x - 8a^4$, which must be reduced to the most simple expression, (as ought always to be done,) by dividing by $-2a$; then the remainder will be $x^3 - 6a^2x + 4a^3$. And because the dimension of x in this remainder is the same as in the divisor, by the said divisor this remainder must be divided; from whence in like manner must be subtracted the product of the quotient into the divisor, and we shall have a second remainder $ax^2 + 2a^2x - 2a^3$, or dividing by a it will be $x^2 + 2ax - 2a^2$. Now because in this remainder the dimension of x is less than in the divisor, the order must be inverted, and this remainder must be made the divisor, and the first divisor the dividend. And making the division, the product of the quotient into the second divisor must be subtracted from the second dividend, that is from $x^3 - ax^2 - 8a^2x + 6a^3$, and the remainder will be $-3ax^2 - 6a^2x + 6a^3$, which dividing by $-3a$ is $x^2 + 2ax - 2a^2$. Now whereas this last remainder is the same as the divisor, it will be the greatest common divisor

divisor of the two formulas $x^4 - 3ax^3 - 8a^2x^2 + 18a^3x - 8a^4$, and $x^3 - ax^2 - 8a^2x + 6a^3$; which being multiplied into b , or $bx^2 + 2abx - 2a^2b$, will be the greatest common divisor of the two formulas at first proposed.

Let the two formulas be $x^4 - 4ax^3 + 11a^2x^2 - 20a^3x + 12a^4$, and $x^4 - 3ax^3 + 12a^2x^2 - 16a^3x + 24a^4$, being ordered according to the letter x . And as this is of the same dimensions in both, we are at liberty to take which of them we please for the divisor. Let the first therefore be divided by the second, and subtracting the product of the quotient into the divisor from the dividend, the first remainder will be $-ax^3 - a^2x^2 - 4a^3x - 12a^4$, which being divided by $-a$ is $x^3 + ax^2 + 4a^2x + 12a^3$. Here inverting the order, let this remainder be taken for the divisor, and the first divisor for the dividend. Then making the division, and subtracting the product of the quotient into this second divisor from the second dividend, the second remainder will be $-4ax^3 + 8a^2x^2 - 28a^3x + 24a^4$, which being divided by $-4a$ will be $x^3 - 2ax^2 + 7a^2x - 6a^3$. By the same second divisor let the division of this second remainder be continued, and making the subtraction as usual, we shall have a third remainder $-3axx + 3a^2x - 18a^3$, or dividing by $-3a$ it will be $x^2 - ax + 6a^2$. Let the order be again inverted, and let the second divisor be divided by this third remainder $x^3 + ax^2 + 4a^2x + 12a^3$, and making the subtraction as usual, the remainder will be found to be $2ax^2 - 2a^2x + 12a^3$; or dividing by $2a$, it will be $xx - ax + 6aa$, the same quantity as that which was a divisor before, and which is therefore the greatest common divisor of the two proposed quantities.

Let the two formulas be $f^4 - afff - bbff + aabb$, and $f^3 - aff - 2abf + 2a^2b$, which are ordered according to the letter f . Let the first be divided by the second, and the product of the quotient into the divisor being subtracted from the dividend, will give the first remainder $af^3 - a^2f^2 + 2abff - bbff - 2a^2bf + a^2b^2$. And if we go on to divide by the same divisor, and the product of the divisor into the quotient being subtracted from the dividend, we shall have a second remainder $2abff - b^2ff - 2a^3b + a^2b^2$, or dividing by b it will be $2aff - bff - 2a^3 + a^2b$. Then invert the order, and divide the first divisor by this second remainder, and taking the product of the quotient $\frac{f}{2a-b}$ into the said remainder, which has now served as a divisor, and then making the subtraction, we shall have a third remainder $-aff + a^2f - 2abf + 2a^2b$, or dividing by $-a$, it is $ff - af + 2bf - 2ab$. The division is to be continued in the same order, and the product of the quotient $\frac{1}{2a-b}$ into the divisor $2aff - bff + a^2b - 2a^3$ being subtracted, we shall have a fourth remainder $-af + 2bf - 2ab + a^2$, by which, inverting the order, the third remainder must be divided, and the product of the quotient $\frac{f}{2b-a}$ into the di-

visor being subtracted, we shall have a fifth remainder $2bf - 2ab$, or dividing by $2b$, it is $f - a$. Now if this is divided by the fourth remainder $-af + 2bf - 2ab + a^2$, and the product of the quotient $\frac{1}{2b-a}$ into the divisor is subtracted, nothing will remain. Whence if by the denominator of the last quotient, it being a fraction, the last divisor $-af + 2bf - 2ab + a^2$ shall be divided, the quotient will be $f - a$, the greatest divisor of the two quantities proposed. But because it was at pleasure whether we chose for a divisor that which was made the dividend, or *vice versa*; that is, we might have divided $-af + 2bf - 2ab + aa$ by $f - a$; let the division be actually made, and the quotient will be $2b - a$ without a remainder; and therefore $f - a$ will be the greatest common divisor, as found above by means of the other division.

Wherefore two formulas may have a greatest common divisor, though being ordered according to some certain letter, it cannot be found in this manner; in which case it must be set in order again, according to some other of its letters. Now if this be tried by setting it in order according to any other letter, and if it will not then succeed, the quantities proposed will have no greatest common divisor. Thus it would not be found in the last example, by setting them in order according to the letter b ; which however is found by ordering them according to the letter f .

Now the fraction $\frac{x^4 - 3ax^3 - 8a^2x^2 + 18a^3x - 8a^4}{x^3 - ax^2 - 8a^2x + 6a^3}$ being given, if we divide the numerator and denominator by $x^2 + 2ax - 2a^2$, we shall have the fraction $\frac{x^2 - 5ax + 4a^2}{x - 3a}$.

Also the fraction $\frac{x^4 - 4ax^3 + 11a^2x^2 - 20a^3x + 12a^4}{x^4 - 3ax^3 + 12a^2x^2 - 16a^3x + 24a^4}$, by dividing by $x^2 - ax + 6a^2$, will become $\frac{x^2 - 3ax + 2a^2}{x^2 - 2ax + 4a^2}$.

And the fraction $\frac{f^4 - a^2f^2 - b^2f^2 + a^2b^2}{f^3 - af^2 - 2abf + 2a^2b}$, by dividing by $f - a$, will become $\frac{f^3 + af^2 - b^2f - ab^2}{f^2 - 2ab}$.

Thus these fractions are reduced to more simple expressions, as is said above at § 30.

Reduction of Irrational Quantities to more simple Expressions.

37. It has been observed already, how irrational quantities arise, which are Surds reduced how, otherwise called Surds, or Radicals. For when the root required cannot be actually extracted, then we have recourse to a *radical vinculum*, which insinuates it. But it often happens that the quantity under the vinculum is the product of two factors, one of which is a true power of the same name as the root required. As if it were \sqrt{aabc} , or $\sqrt{a^2b - a^2x}$; the first of which is the product of aa into bc , and the other is the product of aa into $b - x$. Thus also $\sqrt[3]{a^3x - a^3y}$ is the cube-root of the product of a^3 into $x - y$. In this case the root may be extracted out of such of the factors as will admit it, and wrote without the radical sign, and the other factor may remain under the sign. And this is called extracting the root in part, or reducing the radical to a more simple expression. Thus \sqrt{aabc} will be reduced to $a\sqrt{bc}$. And $\sqrt{a^2b - a^2x}$ will be the same as $a\sqrt{b - x}$; $\sqrt[3]{a^3x - a^3y}$ will be reduced to $a\sqrt[3]{x - y}$; and so of others. In like manner, because $\sqrt{48aabc}$ is the root of the product of $16aa$ into $3bc$, it will be reduced to $4a\sqrt{3bc}$. Thus, because $\sqrt{\frac{a^3b - 4a^2b^2 + 4ab^3}{cc}}$ is the root of the product of $\frac{aa - 4ab + 4bb}{cc}$ into ab , and the root of $\frac{aa - 4ab + 4bb}{cc}$ is $\frac{a - 2b}{c}$; the root reduced will be $\frac{a - 2b}{c}\sqrt{ab}$. Thus the root $\sqrt{\frac{a^2m^2x^2 + 4a^2m^3p}{p^2z^2}}$, when reduced, will be $\frac{am}{pz}\sqrt{x^2 + 4mp}$. And the root $\sqrt[3]{8a^3b + 16a^4}$ will be $2a\sqrt[3]{b + 2a}$. Thus $\sqrt{a^3 - 3a^2b + 3ab^2 - b^3}$, which is the root of the product of $aa - 2ab + bb$ into $a - b$, will be reduced to $\overline{a - b} \times \sqrt{a - b}$. But very often it cannot be known by inspection only, what are the factors from whence the proposed radical proceeds. In which case we must have recourse to the method of finding all the divisors, which I shall give in it's proper place; and if among these shall be one, which is exactly a power with the same exponent as the radical indicates; the proposed quantity may then be reduced in the manner now explained.

Reduction of Radicals to the same Denomination.

38. Those are called radicals of a different denomination which have a different index or exponent. To reduce them therefore to radicals of the same index, we must proceed thus. If the index of one of the radicals is an aliquot part of the index of the other, the greater index must be divided by the lesser, Radicals how reduced to the same denomination.

and the quotient shows that power, to which the quantities must be raised which are under the radical of the lesser index, and to which must be prefixed the radical of the greater index. Let it be proposed to reduce to the same index the quantities $\sqrt{\sqrt{ax}}$ and \sqrt{a} ; or which is the same, $\sqrt[4]{ax}$ and $\sqrt[2]{a}$. Because 4 divided by 2 gives 2 for the quotient, therefore the quantity a of the lesser index must be raised to its square, which is aa , and it will be $\sqrt[4]{aa}$, and therefore is reduced to the same index or denomination as $\sqrt[4]{ax}$. Thus $\sqrt[6]{a^3b^3 + ab^3}$ and \sqrt{ab} will make $\sqrt[6]{a^3b^3 + ab^3}$ and $\sqrt[6]{a^3b^3}$. But if one of the exponents is not an aliquot part of the other, the least number must be found which is divisible without a fraction by each of the exponents of the given radicals, and this will be the index of the common radical. Then the quantities must be raised to the next inferior degree of the number, by which the exponents are increased of the respective radicals, and then to the powers so raised let the common radical now found be prefixed. Let the two quantities $\sqrt[2]{aq}$ and $\sqrt[3]{aaq}$ be given, to be reduced to a common radical. The least number divisible by 2 and by 3 will be 6, and therefore $\sqrt[6]{}$ will be the common radical. Now, because the index of the square-root is in this case increased by 4, and that of the cube-root by 3; therefore the first will become $\sqrt[6]{a^3q^3}$, and the second will be $\sqrt[6]{a^4qq}$. If the radicals to be reduced are more than two, any two are to be reduced first, then the third, and so on successively.

The manner of reducing rationals to any radical, is plain of itself, without the assistance of rules; by raising the rational to any power of the same name or index of the radical given, and then prefixing to it the same radical.

Addition and Subtraction of Radical Quantities.

Surds how
added or
subtracted.

39. To add them together, the radical quantities are wrote one after another with their proper signs. And to subtract them, the signs of those to be subtracted are to be changed, as is done in other quantities. Thus to add $5a\sqrt{bc}$ to $2b\sqrt{bx}$ to $-c\sqrt{zy}$, they must be wrote thus, $5a\sqrt{bc} + 2b\sqrt{bx} - c\sqrt{zy}$. To add $5x\sqrt{ab}$ to $3x\sqrt{ab}$ to $y\sqrt{bx}$, they must be wrote thus, $5x\sqrt{ab} + 3x\sqrt{ab} + y\sqrt{bx}$; and then reducing like terms, which ought always to be done, they will become $8x\sqrt{ab} + y\sqrt{bx}$. To add $a - b$ to $\sqrt{aa - xx}$, it must be wrote $a - b + \sqrt{aa - xx}$. And the same is to be done in subtraction, having regard to the signs.

Multi:

Multiplication of Irrational Quantities.

40. To multiply rational quantities by surds or radicals, the rational is wrote Surds how together with the radical, without any sign between, only prefixing to the pro- multiplied. duct such sign, whether positive or negative, as shall be required by the common rules of multiplication; and this is to be understood always to be done. Therefore the product of a into $\sqrt{aa - xx}$ will be $a\sqrt{aa - xx}$. The product of ab into $-\sqrt{ab}$ will be $-ab\sqrt{ab}$. And if the rational quantities or radicals shall consist of several terms, or if they are complicate; every term of one must be multiplied into every term of the other. Wherefore the product of $aa - xx$ into $\sqrt{xx - yy}$ will be $\frac{aa - xx}{\sqrt{xx - yy}}$, where it is understood, that all those terms are multiplied into the radical, which are under the *vinculum*.

41. To multiply radicals among themselves, supposing them to be of the Surds multi- same denomination, or reduced to such, the quantities must be multiplied into plied by surds. each other which are under the radical signs, and to the product must be put the same radical vinculum, with such a sign, either positive or negative, as the common rule requires. Thus to multiply \sqrt{bc} into \sqrt{xy} , the product will be \sqrt{bcxy} . To multiply $\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$ into $-\sqrt{aa + xx}$, the product will be $-\sqrt{\frac{a^4 - x^4}{x}}$.

42. Moreover, if the radicals shall have rational co-efficients, whether nu- When they meral or literal, those co-efficients must be multiplied together, and also the have rational radicals together, and the product of the co-efficients must be put before the co-efficients. radical, without any sign between. Thus $a\sqrt{bbc}$ into $a\sqrt{bxx}$ will be $aa\sqrt{b^3cx^2}$, which reduced is $aab\sqrt{cxx}$. So $2a - \sqrt{aa - xx}$ into $\frac{b}{a}\sqrt{aa + xx}$ will be $2b\sqrt{aa + xx} - \frac{b}{a}\sqrt{a^4 - x^4}$.

43. According to this rule, to multiply $m\sqrt{ab}$ into $n\sqrt{ab}$, the product would Sometimes be $mn\sqrt{aabb}$. But $aabb$ is a square whose root is ab , and therefore the product may become will be $mnab$. So that, to multiply two like quadratick radicals into each other, rationals. it will suffice to take away the radical vinculum, and the quantities which were under it, multiplied into the product of the co-efficients, will be the total product. Thus $\frac{2b}{a}\sqrt{ax - xx}$ into $-\frac{c}{3}\sqrt{ax - xx}$ will be $-\frac{2bc}{3a} \times \frac{ax - xx}{\sqrt{ax - xx}}$, that is, $-\frac{2}{3}bcx + \frac{2bcxx}{3a}$. But here it must be observed, that if the radicals having

having no co-efficients, or unity only, are affected by the same sign, positive or negative, the *vinculum* being taken away, the quantities must be left with the sign they have. And if the radicals have contrary signs, all the signs of the quantity must be changed. For example, $\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$ into $\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$, or else $-\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$ into $-\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$, will be $\frac{aa - xx}{x}$. Also $\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$ into $+\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$ will be $\frac{-aa + xx}{x}$, or $\frac{aa - xx}{-x}$. The reason of which is, because $\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$, (and so of any other,) is always understood to have + 1 for its co-efficient, and $-\sqrt{\frac{aa - xx}{x}}$ to have - 1. Therefore the product ought to be $1 \times \frac{aa - xx}{x}$ in the first case, and $-1 \times \frac{aa - xx}{x}$ in the second. Here are other examples of these multiplications.

$\sqrt{ab} + \sqrt{aa - xx}$ into $\sqrt{ab} + \sqrt{aa - xx}$ makes the product $ab + \sqrt{a^3b - abx^2} + aa - xx + \sqrt{a^3b - abx^2}$, or $ab + a^2 - xx + 2\sqrt{a^3b - abx^2}$.

$x - \sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{4a^4 + y^4} - y^2}{2}}$ into $x + \sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{4a^4 + y^4} - y^2}{2}}$ makes the product $xx - x\sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{4a^4 + y^4} - y^2}{2}} - \frac{\sqrt{4a^4 + y^4} - y^2}{2} + x\sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{4a^4 + y^4} - y^2}{2}}$, that is, $xx + \frac{1}{2}yy - \frac{\sqrt{4a^4 + y^4}}{2}$.

$\sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}pp}}$ into $\sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}pp}}$ makes the product $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{4}qq} + q\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}pp} + \frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}pp$, that is, $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{4}qq} - \frac{1}{27}pp + q\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}pp}$.

Rational co-efficients how brought under the vinculum.

44. Because $a\sqrt{ax}$, $\overline{a - b} \times \sqrt{ax - xx}$, and such others, are the products of a rational quantity into a radical, and we already know how to reduce any rational to any radical we please; we can always make the rational multiplier to pass under the *vinculum* without any alteration of the quantity. Thus $a\sqrt{a - x}$ will be the same as $\sqrt{a^3 - a^2x}$; $\overline{a - b} \times \sqrt{xy}$ will become $\sqrt{a^2xy - 2abxy + b^2xy}$; $ax\sqrt[3]{m - n}$ will be $\sqrt[3]{ma^3x^3 - na^3x^3}$; and so of any others.

Different surds how multiplied.

45. If the radicals to be multiplied are not of the same name, they may be reduced to such, and then the multiplication may be made as before. But very often it will be more commodious to insinuate it only, without actually performing it, and this by writing one radical after another, without any sign interposed, except the mark of multiplication. Thus $\sqrt{aa - xx} \times \sqrt[3]{xxy}$ will denote the product of these two radicals.

Division

Division of Radical Quantities.

46. In every term of the dividend and of the divisor, if the same radical is found, omitting this, the rational quantities are to be divided as usual, and what results will be the quotient. Thus to divide $5a\sqrt{3}$ by $3a\sqrt{3}$, the quotient will be $\frac{5}{3}$. To divide $6\sqrt{a^4 + a^2b^2}$ by $2\sqrt{a^2b^2 + b^4}$, or $6a\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ by $2b\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$, the quotient will be $\frac{3a}{b}$. To divide $aa\sqrt{aa + xx} - 2ax\sqrt{aa + xx} + xx\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$ by $a\sqrt{aa + xx} - x\sqrt{aa + xx}$, omitting the radical, and dividing $aa - 2ax + xx$ by $a - x$, the quotient will be $a - x$. To divide $aa + bb$ by $\sqrt{aa + bb}$, because the dividend is $\sqrt{aa + bb} \times \sqrt{aa + bb}$, the quotient will be $\sqrt{aa + bb}$.

47. But when the radicals are not the same, though they have the same exponent of the root; let the quantities under the *vinculum* be divided by the rational quantities in the usual manner, and to the quotient prefix the common *vinculum*. Thus to divide $\sqrt[3]{a^3b - ab^3}$ by $\sqrt[3]{aa - bb}$, dividing $a^3b - ab^3$ by $a^2 - b^2$ there arises ab , and therefore the quotient required is $\sqrt[3]{ab}$.

48. And if the exponents of the roots are different, they may be reduced to the same, and then the operation will be as before. Thus to divide $\sqrt{a^4 + 2a^3b - 2ab^3 - b^4}$ by $a + b$, the square of $a + b$ must be found, and put under the *vinculum*, which will be then $\sqrt{aa + 2ab + bb}$. Then by the quantity under this *vinculum* the other quantity must be divided, and the result will be $aa - bb$. Therefore the quotient required will be $\sqrt{aa - bb}$.

By combining these rules with those of common division, quantities still more complicate may be divided. Thus to divide $a^3b - ab^2c - a^2b\sqrt{bc} + b^2c\sqrt{bc}$ by $a - \sqrt{bc}$, it may be performed as is usual in division.

Dividend.	$a^3b - ab^2c - a^2b\sqrt{bc} + b^2c\sqrt{bc}$.	Divisor	$a - \sqrt{bc}$
Rem.	$-ab^2c - b^2c\sqrt{bc}$	Quotient	$a^2b - b^2c$

Thus dividing $a^3 - abc + a^2\sqrt{bc} - bc\sqrt{bc}$ by $a - \sqrt{bc}$, the quotient will be $aa + bc + 2a\sqrt{bc}$. And when the division will not succeed, the quantities must be wrote in form of a fraction.

Extraction

Extraction of the Square-Root of Radical Quantities.

The square-root of surds extracted.

49. When quantities any how compounded of rationals and radicals are quadratick radicals, the rule for extracting the square-root will be this. Taking such a part of the quantity proposed as is greater than the remaining part, from the square of this greater part let the square of the lesser part be subtracted, and to the greater part let the square-root of the remainder be added, and likewise be subtracted from it. The square-root of the half of this sum, and of the half of this difference, being taken together, and taking the same sign to this second as belongs to the minor part, will make the square-root of the proposed quantity. Thus let us extract the square-root of the quantity $3 + \sqrt{8}$; subtracting the square of $\sqrt{8}$ from the square of 3, there will remain 1, the root of which is also 1. Adding this therefore to the greater part, or 3, they will make 4, and subtracting it from the same, it will make 2; now the square-root of the half of 4 is $\sqrt{2}$, and the square-root of the half of 2 is 1; therefore $\sqrt{2} + 1$ will be the root required.

If we would have the square-root of $6 + \sqrt{8} - \sqrt{12} - \sqrt{24}$; from the square of $6 + \sqrt{8}$ subtracting the square of $-\sqrt{12} - \sqrt{24}$, there remains 8, the root of which $\sqrt{8}$ being added to $6 + \sqrt{8}$, the greater part, will make $6 + 2\sqrt{8}$, and subtracted from the same greater part will make 6. Therefore the first part of the root required will be $\sqrt{\frac{6 + 2\sqrt{8}}{2}}$, that is, $\sqrt{3 + \sqrt{8}}$, and the second part will be $-\sqrt{\frac{6}{2}}$, that is $-\sqrt{3}$, (for the lesser part of the proposed quantity was affected by the negative sign;) whence $\sqrt{3 + \sqrt{8}} - \sqrt{3}$ will be the root required. But by the last example it may be seen, that $\sqrt{3 + \sqrt{8}}$ is the same as $1 + \sqrt{2}$; therefore, lastly, the root of the quantity proposed will be $1 + \sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}$.

Let us extract the square-root of $aa + 2x\sqrt{aa - xx}$. Taking from the square of aa the square of $2x\sqrt{aa - xx}$, there will remain $a^4 - 4aaxx + 4x^4$, the root of which is $aa - 2xx$. This added to the greater part aa , and taking the half of it, will make $aa - xx$: and subtracted from the same, and taking half the difference, will make xx . Therefore the root required is $\sqrt{aa - xx} + x$.

Let us extract the square-root of the quantity $aa + 5ax - 2a\sqrt{ax + 4xx}$. From the square of $aa + 5ax$, the greater part, subtracting the square of $-2a\sqrt{ax + 4xx}$, there will remain $a^4 + 6a^3x + 9a^2x^2$, the root of which is $aa + 3ax$. This added to the greater part, and taking it's half, it will be $aa + 4ax$; and subtracting and taking the half, it will be ax . Therefore the root required will be $\sqrt{aa + 4ax} - \sqrt{ax}$.

To

To extract the square-root of this quantity $a\sqrt{bc} + d\sqrt{bc} + 2\sqrt{abcd}$. From the square of $a\sqrt{bc} + d\sqrt{bc}$ subtracting the square of $2\sqrt{abcd}$, there remains $aabc - 2abcd + bcdd$, the root of which is $a\sqrt{bc} - d\sqrt{bc}$; which being added to the major part, and subtracted from the same, and taking half of the sum and difference, the half of the sum will be $a\sqrt{bc}$, and half of the difference $d\sqrt{bc}$. Therefore the root required is $\sqrt{a\sqrt{bc} + d\sqrt{bc}}$, that is, $\sqrt[4]{aabc} + \sqrt[4]{bcdd}$, or $\sqrt[4]{aabc} + \sqrt[4]{bcdd}$. If the root cannot be extracted, the quantity must be put under a radical *vinculum*, as usual.

The Calculation of Powers.

50. There is nothing now to be observed concerning the Addition or Subtraction of Powers; they are to be written one after another with their proper signs in the first case, and in the second by changing the signs of the quantities to be subtracted. But as to the other operations which belong to their exponents, it may be first observed, that, taking unity for the first term, and any quantity whatever, as a , for the second, and then successively the other powers of the same quantity a in order, it is plain we shall form an increasing geometrical progression, $1, a, a^2, a^3, a^4, \&c.$; and that the exponents of this progression will form an arithmetical progression increasing, which will be $0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \&c.$ The first term of this is 0 , because unity being the first term in the geometrical progression, in this the quantity a is raised to no power; for $1 = \frac{a}{a} = a^0$. Wherefore, multiplying either $\frac{a}{a}$, or a^0 , by a , which does not destroy the equality, the product will be $a = a^{0+1}$, which are magnitudes plainly identical. And besides, if we continue the same geometrical progression below unity, it will be $1, \frac{1}{a}, \frac{1}{a^2}, \frac{1}{a^3}, \frac{1}{a^4}, \&c.$ And likewise, continuing the arithmetical progression of the exponents, they will become $0, -1, -2, -3, -4, \&c.$ And therefore the exponents of such powers will be negative. So that $\frac{1}{a}, \frac{1}{a^2}, \frac{1}{a^3}, \&c.$ will be the same as $a^{-1}, a^{-2}, a^{-3}, \&c.$ And in general, $\frac{1}{a^n}$ will be the same as a^{-n} ; that is to say, we may always make a power to pass into the numerator of a fraction out of the denominator, and *vice versa*, only by changing the sign of the index.

51. Moreover, if we should desire to introduce new intermediate terms into the geometrical progression, the exponents of these would also be intermediate terms

F

When they are fractions.

terms in the arithmetical progression, analogous to the former. So, because \sqrt{a} is a geometrical mean between unity and a , the exponent of this ought to be an arithmetical mean between 0 and unity, and therefore must be $\frac{1}{2}$; so that $a^{\frac{1}{2}}$ will be the same as \sqrt{a} . If two mean proportionals are interposed between 1 and a , of which the first will be $\sqrt[3]{a}$, and the second $\sqrt[3]{aa}$, there must be two arithmetical means between 0 and 1, which are $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$; so that $a^{\frac{1}{3}}$ will be the same as $\sqrt[3]{a}$, and $a^{\frac{2}{3}}$ will be the same as $\sqrt[3]{aa}$. If three mean proportionals are introduced, they will be $\sqrt[4]{a}$ the first, $\sqrt[4]{aa}$ the second, and $\sqrt[4]{aaa}$ the third, and their exponents will be $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{2}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$; therefore $\sqrt[4]{a}$ will be the same as $a^{\frac{1}{4}}$, and $\sqrt[4]{aa}$ the same as $a^{\frac{2}{4}}$, or $a^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and $\sqrt[4]{a^3}$ will be the same as $a^{\frac{3}{4}}$. And thus we may proceed to as many mean proportionals as we please; so that, in general, it will be $\sqrt[m]{a^n}$, the same as $a^{\frac{n}{m}}$.

The same things obtain in respect of the progression produced by descending below unity. Thus, as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}$ is a mean proportional between unity and $\frac{1}{a}$, or between unity and a^{-1} , so its index should be an arithmetical mean between 0 and -1 , that is $-\frac{1}{2}$; therefore $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}$ will be the same as $a^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, or $\frac{1}{a^{\frac{1}{2}}}$.

Thus likewise $\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{a}}$ and $\frac{1}{a^{\frac{1}{3}}}$ and $a^{-\frac{1}{3}}$ will be the same. And $\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{aa}}$, $\frac{1}{a^{\frac{2}{3}}}$, $a^{-\frac{2}{3}}$ will be the same. And so, in general, $\frac{1}{\sqrt[m]{a^n}}$, $\frac{1}{a^{\frac{n}{m}}}$, and $a^{-\frac{n}{m}}$ will be the same.

And what has been said concerning integral or fractional powers of simple quantities, is to be understood also of compound quantities. Thus, for example, $\frac{1}{(aa+bb)^n}$ is the same as $(aa+bb)^{-n}$. So $\sqrt[m]{(aa+bb)^n}$ will be the same as $(aa+bb)^{\frac{n}{m}}$; and the like of others.

Powers how
multiplied or
divided.

52. From the nature of the two foregoing progressions, the geometrical and arithmetical, we obtain a method for the multiplication or division of any two powers of the same quantity, whatever they may be; and that is, by adding the exponents together when the powers are to be multiplied, and by subtracting

ing the exponent of the divisor from that of the dividend, when the powers are to be divided. For, as to multiplication, as the product is the fourth proportional from unity and the two factors, these four terms will be in a geometrical proportion, and their exponents in an arithmetical progression. Therefore the exponent of the fourth, that is of the product, must be greater than the exponent of the third, by as much as the exponent of the second is greater than the exponent of the first. But the exponent of the second is greater than the exponent of the first, which is 0, by it's whole quantity; therefore the exponent of the fourth ought to be greater than the exponent of the third by the whole exponent of the second; that is, it ought to be equal to the sum of the exponents of the second and third. As to division, it has the same proportion as multiplication, but only inverted. It's first term is the dividend, it's second the divisor, the third the quotient, and the fourth is unity. Therefore as much as the exponent of the dividend is greater than the exponent of the divisor, so much the exponent of the quotient ought to be greater than 0. Therefore it ought to be exactly the difference of the exponents of the dividend and the divisor.

So that to multiply aa by a , or a^2 by a^1 , the product will be a^{2+1} or a^3 . To multiply a^3 into a^2 , the product is a^{3+2} , or a^5 . To multiply a^6 into a^{-2} , the product is a^{6-2} , or a^4 . To multiply $a^{\frac{1}{2}}$ into $a^{\frac{1}{3}}$, the product is $a^{\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}}$, that is $a^{\frac{5}{6}}$. To multiply $a^{-\frac{2}{3}}$ into $a^{\frac{1}{5}}$, the product is $a^{-\frac{2}{3}+\frac{1}{5}}$, that is $a^{-\frac{7}{15}}$. To multiply $a^{\pm \frac{n}{m}}$ into $a^{\pm \frac{r}{t}}$, the product is $a^{\pm \frac{n}{m} \pm \frac{r}{t}}$, or $a^{\frac{\pm nt \pm mr}{mt}}$.

And so to divide a^3 by a^1 , the quotient will be a^{3-1} , or a^2 . To divide a^5 by a^{-2} , the quotient will be a^{5+2} , or a^7 . To divide a^2 by $a^{\frac{1}{2}}$, the quotient will be $a^{2-\frac{1}{2}}$, or $a^{\frac{3}{2}}$. To divide $a^{\frac{2}{3}}$ by $a^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, the quotient will be $a^{\frac{2}{3}+\frac{1}{2}}$, or $a^{\frac{7}{6}}$. To divide $a^{\pm \frac{n}{m}}$ by $a^{\pm \frac{r}{t}}$, the quotient will be $a^{\pm \frac{n}{m} \mp \frac{r}{t}}$, that is, $a^{\frac{\pm nt \mp mr}{mt}}$.

53. And because in the progression before considered, taking any term whatever, the same term with a double exponent will be the square of the term so taken; and a term with a treble exponent will be the cube of the assumed term; and a term with a quadruple exponent will be the fourth power; and so on. And a term with half the exponent will be the square-root of the term assumed; a term with a third part, a fourth part, &c. will be the cube-root, the fourth root, &c. of the term assumed. It follows therefore that, to reduce one power

power to another, it will be sufficient to multiply the exponent of the given power by the exponent of that power to which we would raise it : and to extract any root, it will be enough to divide it's index by the index of the given root.

Thus to raise a^2 to it's cube, it will be $a^{2 \times 3}$, or a^6 . To raise $a^{\frac{2}{3}}$ to the cube, it will be $a^{\frac{2}{3} \times 3}$, or a^2 . To raise $a^{-\frac{1}{4}}$ to the fifth power, it will be $a^{-\frac{1}{4} \times 5}$, or $a^{-\frac{5}{4}}$. To raise $a^{\pm \frac{n}{m}}$ to the power whose index is $\pm \frac{r}{t}$, it will be $a^{\pm \frac{nr}{mt}}$.

Thus to extract the square-root of a^5 , it will be $a^{\frac{5}{2}}$. To extract the cube-root of $a^{\frac{1}{2}}$, it will be $a^{\frac{1}{6}}$. To extract the root r of $a^{\pm \frac{m}{n}}$, it will be $a^{\pm \frac{m}{nr}}$, &c.

Extended to
compound
quantities.

54. What I have here said concerning the powers or roots of one and the same simple quantity, may be understood in like manner concerning the powers or roots of any compound quantities, as is evident. And by this method the calculus of fractions and radicals will be much facilitated.

Of Linear or Simple Divisors of any Formula whatever.

Simple di-
visors how
found ; as
also com-
pound di-
visors.

55. Any quantity or formula whatever, whether complicate or not, is said to be *prime* or *simple*, when it is not exactly divisible by any other quantity, except itself or unity. And it is called *compound* when it is exactly divisible by some other quantity. Thus, for example, $a + b$, $aa + xx$, $x^3 - aax + aab$, and such others, will be prime or simple. But ab is compound, because divisible by a or b . So $aa - xx$ is compound, because divisible by $a + x$ or $a - x$. And so of others.

Two or more formulas are *relative primes*, when they have no common divisor, and that the leffer is not a divisor of the greater. Such between themselves will be aa and bb . Also $aa + 2ab + bb$ and $aa + bb$, &c. And on the contrary, they are absolutely and relatively compound, between themselves, when they have some common divisor, or that one of them can divide the other. Such are aa and ab , which are both divisible by a ; such are $aa - xx$ and $a + x$, which are divisible by $a + x$, &c.

In order to have all the simple divisors of any quantity, either numeral, or literal, or mixt, it must be divided by the least of it's divisors, and the quotient again by the least of it's divisors, and so on continually till a quotient arises, which

which can no longer be divided except by itself. The quantities thus arising, unity being comprehended among them, will be all the simple divisors. And if they are taken two by two, three by three, and so on; according to all the combinations possible, they will give likewise all the compound divisors.

For example, let us find all the divisors, simple or compound, of the number 300. Let the given number 300 be wrote at A, and at one side, as at B, set down it's least divisor, as 2. Then dividing by 2, write the quotient 150 at A under 300; and again divide this number 150 by 2, and over against it at B write the divisor 2, and the quotient 75 at A under the first quotient 150. Now, because 75 is not divisible by 2, let it be divided by 3, and write the divisor 3 over against it at B, and under it at A the quotient 25. The least divisor of 25 will be 5, which must be wrote over against it at B, and the quotient 5 under it at A. The last quotient 5 is not divisible unless by itself; therefore it must be wrote aside at B, and we shall have all the prime divisors; to which we may add unity, because it is always a divisor of any quantity. Now to have all the compound divisors, according to all the combinations, let the first and second divisors be multiplied together, and the product 4 be wrote at B over against the second divisor. By the third divisor let all above it be multiplied, and let the products 6, 12, be wrote aside, setting down but once those that may chance to be repeated. In like manner, by the fourth let all above it be multiplied, and the products set down as before: and so on successively to the last. Now the numbers wrote at B will be all the divisors of the proposed number 300.

A.	B.						
	I						
300	2						
150	2	4					
75	3	6	12				
25	5	10	15	20	30	60	
5	5	25	50	75	100	150	300
I							

Let the given formula be $21abb$, of which we are to find all the divisors. As it is not divisible by 2, let it be divided by 3, which is to be wrote over against it at B, and the quotient $7abb$ under it at A. Let $7abb$ be divided by 7, which is to be wrote over against it, and the quotient abb underneath. Let abb be divided by a , which is wrote aside, and the quotient bb under it. Then divide bb by b , which is wrote aside, and the quotient b underneath. This is to be divided by b , and wrote over against it; and then we shall have all the prime divisors 1, 3, 7, a , b , b , of the proposed quantity. To have those that are compound we must multiply 3 into 7, and the product is 21. Multiply 3, 7, 21 into a , and the products are $3a$, $7a$, $21a$. Multiply all the divisors 3, 7, 21, a , $3a$, $7a$, $21a$ into b , and there will arise $3b$, $7b$, $21b$, ab , $3ab$, $7ab$, $21ab$; and

and so proceed. Thus the column B will contain all the divisors of the quantity proposed, both simple and compound.

A.	B.
	I
21abb	3
7abb	7 21
abb	a 3a 7a 21a
bb	b 3b 7b 21b ab 3ab 7ab 21ab
b	b bb 3bb 7bb 21bb abb 3abb 7abb 21abb
I	

In like manner, let $2abb - 6aac$ be given. Let it first be divided by 2, and the quotient $abb - 3aac$ by a , and the new quotient $bb - 3ac$ by itself, as being divisible by no other quantity. And therefore all the divisors will be as in the column B.

A.	B.
	I
$2abb - 6aac$	2
$abb - 3aac$	$a, 2a$
$bb - 3ac$	$bb - 3ac, 2bb - 6ac, abb - 3aac, 2abb - 6aac$
I	

Compound
formulas how
resolved.

56. But if the last quotient, or perhaps the formula itself at first proposed, shall still be compound, and yet is not divisible, after the foregoing manner, by any simple quantity, so that all its divisors are compound terms; the way of obtaining them is different, and may be thus. The quantity is to be set in order according to some one of its letters, as has been already shown at § 24; and if there are fractions, they must be reduced to a common denominator. Then all the divisors of the last term must be found, compounded of numeral divisors if there are any, and of the letter of one dimension. And if the greatest term has a numeral co-efficient, it must be divided by some one of those divisors, by which that co-efficient of the greatest term is divisible. By every one of these divisors, first added and then subtracted from the letter, by which the formula is ordered, the division must be tried; and all those by which it succeeds will be so many divisors of the proposed quantity.

Let the formula $y^3 - 4ay^2 + 5a^2y - 2a^3$ be given. The divisors of one dimension of the last term are a and $2a$. Therefore the division must be tried by each of these added to the letter y , or subtracted from it, because the co-efficient of the greatest term y is unity; that is, by $y \pm a$, or by $y \pm 2a$. First let it be divided by $y - 2a$, and the quotient is $yy - 2ay + aa$, which also is divisible by $y - a$, giving $y - a$ in the quotient. Wherefore the divisors of the formula proposed are $y - a$, $y - a$, and $y - 2a$, from the product of which it is derived.

Let

Let the formula be $6y^4 - ay^3 - 21aayy + 3a^3y + 20a^4$. The divisors of one dimension of the last term are $a, 2a, 4a, 5a, 10a, 20a$; and because the first term $6y^4$ is divisible by 1, 2, and 3, we must try the division by $y \pm \frac{1}{2}a$, $y \pm a$, $y \pm 2a$, $y \pm \frac{5}{2}a$, $y \pm 5a$, $y \pm 10a$, $y \pm \frac{1}{3}a$, $y \pm \frac{2}{3}a$, $y \pm \frac{4}{3}a$, $y \pm \frac{5}{3}a$, $y \pm \frac{10}{3}a$, $y \pm \frac{20}{3}a$. But because it would be too tedious and troublesome to try all these divisors; in order to know among so many which are to be selected, we may make $y = z + a$; and substituting this in the place of y , and also its powers, there will arise another formula, which is this.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 6z^4 + 24az^3 + 36aaz^2 + 24a^3z + 6a^4 \\
 - az^3 - 3aaz^2 - 3a^3z - a^4 \\
 - 21aaz^2 - 42a^3z - 21a^4 \\
 + 3a^3z + 3a^4 \\
 + 20a^4
 \end{array}$$

Which by collecting the terms will be this,

$$6z^4 + 23az^3 + 12a^2z^2 - 18a^3z + 7a^4.$$

Now all the divisors of the last term $7a^4$ of this formula are found to be a and $7a$, which divided by 2 and by 3, the numeral divisors of $6z^4$, will make $\frac{1}{2}a$, $\frac{1}{3}a$, $\frac{7}{2}a$, $\frac{7}{3}a$. And because it was made $y = z + a$, if these divisors can be made use of in the second given formula by z , they will also be useful in the first by y , when they are increased by the quantity a , that is by making them $\frac{3}{2}a$, $\frac{4}{3}a$, $\frac{9}{2}a$, $\frac{10}{3}a$. Therefore let these divisors be compared with the divisors of the first formula, and choose only those which agree with them, that is $\frac{4}{3}a$ and $\frac{10}{3}a$, by which added to and subtracted from y , the division must be tried; which will succeed with $y + \frac{4}{3}a$. But notwithstanding this operation, if there should still remain too many divisors to be selected by this comparison, we may make $y = z - a$, and another formula will arise. From the divisors found by this, the quantity a must be subtracted, and then they are to be compared with those which are selected by means of the second; and by them which agree, which will be fewer in number, the division is to be tried. And proceeding in the same way of operation by new substitutions, making $y = z + 2a$, $y = z - 2a$, &c. the divisors may be reduced to such smaller numbers as will be sufficient.

57. When

How the co-efficient of the first term may be removed.

57. When the proposed formula has it's first or greatest term multiplied by any number, instead of applying the rule foregoing to this case, it may be more convenient to change the formula into another, the first term of which is multiplied only by unity; and then find the divisors of the same, from which you may afterwards pass to those of the proposed formula.

Let the formula be, for example,

$$3y^3 + 9ayy - 12aay - 12aab. \\ + 3byy + 9aby$$

Make $3y = z$, (or, in general, $ny = z$, putting n to represent the numeral co-efficient of the highest power,) and thence $y = \frac{1}{3}z$. This being substituted instead of y , and it's powers expressed in like manner, we shall have the formula $z^3 + 9az^2 + 3bz^2 - 36a^2z + 27abz - 108a^2b$, all divided by 9. Let the divisors of this be found, (at present omitting the denominator 9,) which will be $z + 12a$, $z - 3a$, $z + 3b$; and taking account of the denominator 9, one of these is to be divided by 9, or two of them by 3, and they will be, for example, $z + 12a$, $\frac{z - 3a}{3}$, $\frac{z + 3b}{3}$; but it was made $3y = z$; and substituting this value of z in the divisors, they will become $3y + 12a$, $y - a$, $y + b$, which are the three divisors of the formula proposed.

S E C T. II.

Of Equations, and of Plane Determinate Problems.

Equations and their affections what?

58. *Equation* is a relation of equality, which two or more quantities, whether numerical, geometrical, or physical, have with one another when compared together; or which they have with nothing when compared to that. The aggregate of all those terms which are wrote before the mark of equality, is called the First Member of the Equation; and the aggregate of all those which are wrote after it, is called the Second Member, or the *Homogeneum Comparationis*. Those terms of the equation are homogeneous, when each of them is of the same dimension; and therefore in an equation they are said to observe the law of homogeneity, as in this equation $axx - bby = a^3$. And thus, on the contrary, they are said not to observe the law of homogeneity, when the terms are not such, as in this equation $x^4 - ax^2 = b$.

59. A *Problem* is a proposition in which it is required to do or to find some- A problem, thing, by means of other things which are known, or of certain conditions^{what.} which are given, and therefore called the *Data* of the Problem. So those things which are required are the *Quæsitæ* of the Problem.

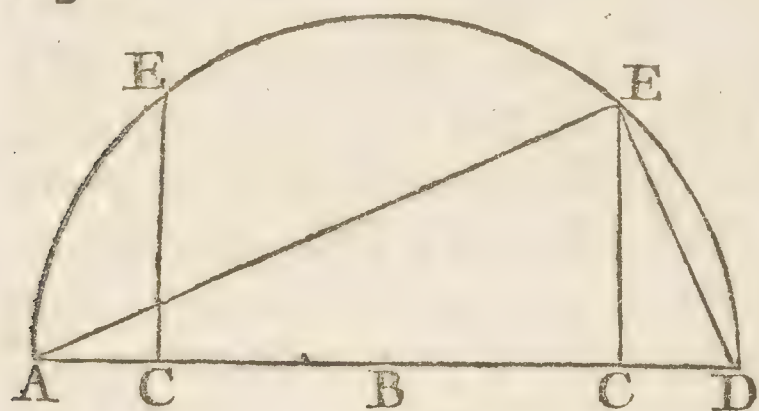
60. Of Problems some are *Determinate*, and others *Indeterminate*. The deter- When pro- minate are those which have a certain number of solutions, or which can be blem are resolved by one or more determinations, but always in a finite and limited determinate, number. Such it would be if we should inquire, —when inde- terminate.

Fig. 1.



Because one point only can be assigned in this line, for example C, which will have the property required. The same thing

Fig. 2.



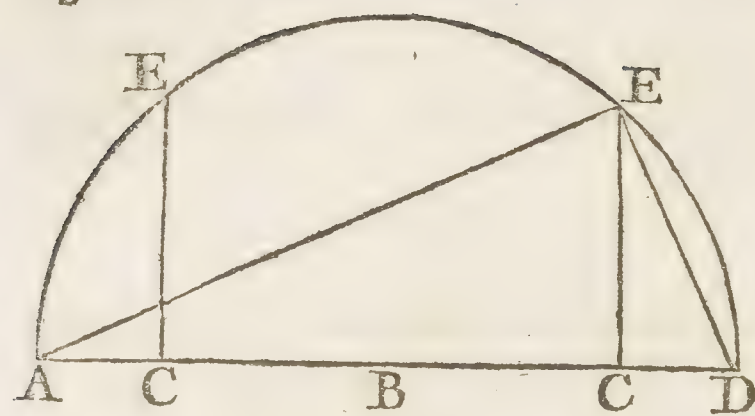
would be, if in a given circle AED we were to find a point, suppose C, in the diameter AD, from whence raising a perpendicular CE, terminated in the periphery; this perpendicular should be just equal to a third part of the diameter. For there are only two points, each at an equal distance from the centre, that can satisfy this demand.

Now if it were proposed to find, out of the right line AD, such a point E, so that drawing from it two right lines EA, ED, to it's extremities A and D, the angle AED shall be a right angle; it will be found, that there are infinite such points as will resolve the problem, or the whole periphery AED, as is known from *Euclid*. In the same manner, if a point C is required in the diameter AD, from whence raising the perpendicular EC in the circle, it shall be a mean proportional between the segments AC, DC; it will be found, that all the points of the diameter will solve the problem (and therefore such points are infinite in number); which is therefore called an *Indeterminate Problem*.

Determinate problems have occasion for one unknown quantity only, but indeterminate ones of two at least, though the manner of forming an equation is the same in both. Of these I shall treat particularly in Sect. III.

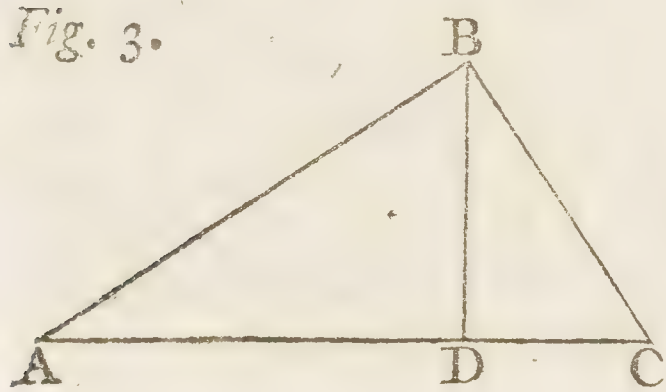
61. The given or known quantities are used to be denominated by the first Known and letters of the alphabet, as has been said already; but the unknown, or such as unknown quantities are required, by some one of the last letters. And here it may be observed, how distin- that if the quantity sought is a line, it ought always to have it's origin or be- guished. ginning at some determinate fixed point. And as that which is required is already supposed to be done or known, by calling it, for example, x ; so that from these quantities supposed as known, others that depend on them come to be

Fig. 2.



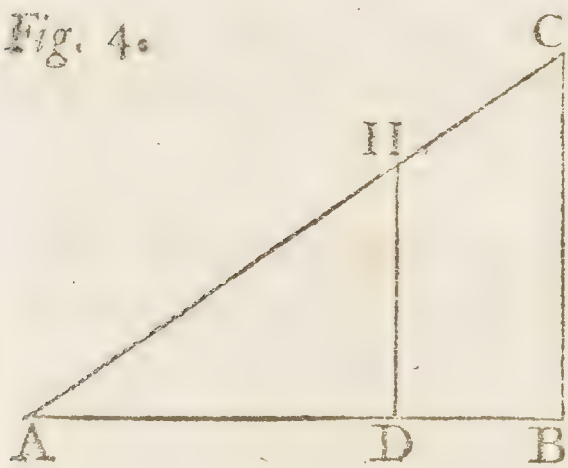
were by construction. Thus, in the right-angled triangle AED, if the hypotenuse $AD = a$ is given, and the side $ED = b$; then, by the 47th proposition of the first Book of *Euclid*, the side $AE = \sqrt{aa - bb}$ will be therefore given. Thus, in the semicircle AED, the diameter $AD = a$ being given, and the segment $AC = b$, it will be $CD = a - b$; and therefore, by *Euclid*, vi. 8, it will be $CE = \sqrt{ab - bb}$. Or because AC was called x , it will be $CE = \sqrt{ax - xx}$, which is given both by hypothesis and by construction.

Fig. 3.



Thus, in the right-angled triangle ACB, from the right angle B letting fall the perpendicular BD, let be given, for example, the two lines $AC = a$, and $AB = b$; then in like manner will be given all the other lines BC, BD, AD, DC. For $BC = \sqrt{aa - bb}$, by *Euclid*, i. 47, as said before. And by vi. 8, CD will be a third proportional to AC and CB; wherefore it will be $CD = \frac{aa - bb}{a}$, by the 17th of the same book. AD will be a third proportional to AC and AB, and therefore $AD = \frac{bb}{a}$. DB will be a mean proportional between AD and DC; or else it will be a fourth proportional to AC, CB, AB, and therefore, by 16 of the same book, it will be $DB = \frac{b\sqrt{aa - bb}}{a}$.

Fig. 4.



Thus, in the right-angled triangle ABC, if DH is parallel to BC, and are given $AB = a$, $BC = b$, $AD = x$; then, by 4 of vi., will be given $DH = \frac{bx}{a}$, $AH = \frac{x\sqrt{aa + bb}}{a}$. And the same may be observed of infinite others.

Equations
how derived.

62. Thus, by supposing that already done or known, which is to be done or known, and by treating given and sought quantities indifferently, all the conditions may be fulfilled, which are required by the proposition or problem, and we shall thus arrive at an equation. Let there be a

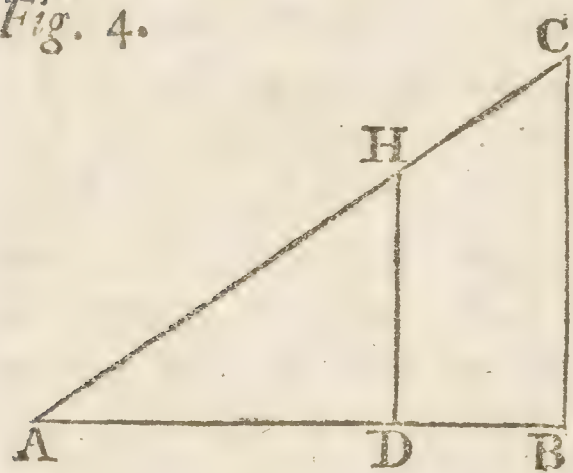
Fig. 1.



right line AB, which is to be cut in extreme and mean proportion. Let $AB = a$, and let C be the point

point required. Let $AC = x$, and therefore $CB = a - x$. The condition implied is, that it ought to be $AB \cdot AC :: AC \cdot CB$; that is, $a \cdot x :: x \cdot a - x$. But by the nature of a geometrical proportion, the rectangle of the means must be equal to that of the extremes; so that $ax - ax = xx$, and thus we are now come to an equation. Again, let there be three numbers given, the first is 4, the second is 5, and the third is 10. A fourth number must be found, such that, if from the product of this into the third the first be subtracted, and if the remainder is divided by the first, the quotient shall be equal to the second number given. Let the number sought be denoted by x ; then the product of this into the third will be $10x$, from which subtracting the first, the remainder will be $10x - 4$, and dividing this by the first, the quotient will be $\frac{10x - 4}{4}$, which by the condition of the problem should be 5, that is $\frac{10x - 4}{4} = 5$, which is the equation required.

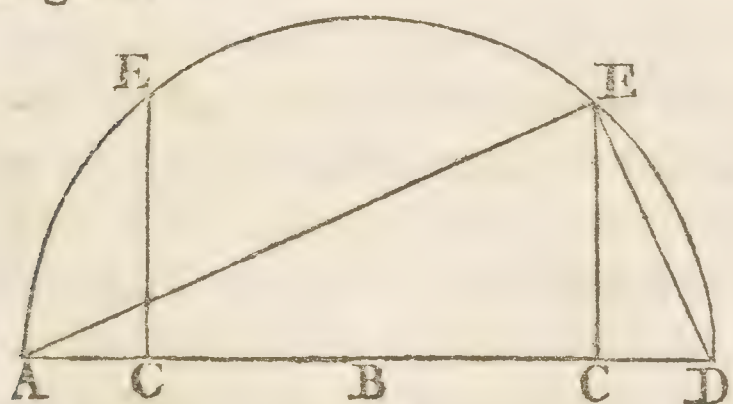
Fig. 4.



Again, in the triangle ABC, are given the sides $AC = a$, $BC = b$, and the base $AB = c$; we are to find in this such a point D, that drawing DH parallel to BC, the square of DH may be equal to the rectangle $AD \times DB$. Make $AD = x$, whence $DB = c - x$; and because of like triangles ABC, ADH, it will be $DH = \frac{bx}{c}$. Then by completing what the problem requires, we shall have the equation $\frac{b^2 x^2}{c^2} = cx - xx$.

63. If the given triangle ABC is right-angled at B, we shall have no need to denominate $AC = a$, but otherwise $= \sqrt{bb + ca}$, to express thereby the condition of a right-angled triangle. Thus

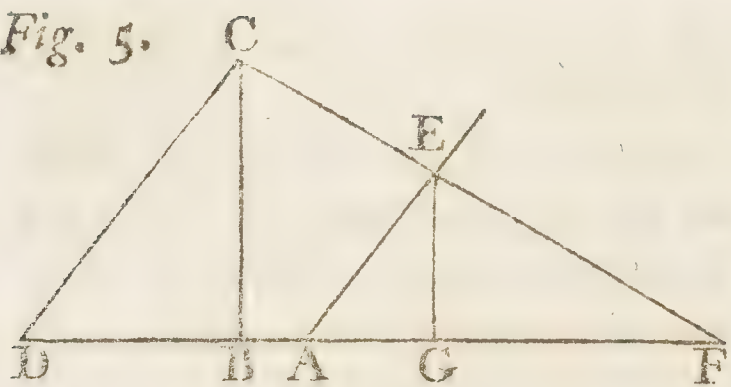
Fig. 2.



in the semicircle AED is given the diameter $AD = 2a$, and the segment $AC = b$; hence consequently is given the line CE, and therefore it ought not to be expressed by a letter at pleasure, but to be denominated from the property of the circle, by making it $= \sqrt{2ab - bb}$; thereby expressly to indicate, that it is an ordinate in the circle at the point C. And in general it is to be understood, that the same ought to be done in all like cases.

64. But perhaps it may make some difficulty, that very often the lines given in a figure, by which the problem is proposed, are not sufficient to obtain such quantities or denominations, as are necessary to arrive at an equation. Such a

Fig. 5.



case would be, if two indefinite right lines AE, AF, were given in position, and a point C out of those lines : and if it were proposed to draw a line CF in such a manner from the point C, as that it should include a triangle AEF, equal to a given plane. The expression of the triangle AEF would be half the rectangle of AF into EG, letting fall EG perpendicular

to AF. Now make $AF = x$; but yet it will not be possible to determine the value of EG from the lines hitherto described. Upon such occasions it will be necessary to construct or complete the figure, by drawing parallels, raising or letting fall perpendiculars, forming similar triangles, describing circles, or by using the like expedients of the common Geometry; for which it is not possible to give any general rules, as they will depend on the various circumstances of problems, on sagacity, industry, and practice, and often upon chance. But commonly these propositions of the first Book of *Euclid* are used to be of good service, 5, 13, 15, 27, 29, 32, 47; some of the second; these of the third, 20, 21, 22, 27, 31, 35, 36; these of the sixth, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; and some of the 11th and 12th when solids are concerned. Therefore, in the problem now proposed, from the point C draw CD parallel to EA, and EG, CB, perpendicular to FA produced. Now because the right lines AE, AF, are given in position, and also the point C; the lines AD, CB, will be given in magnitude. Therefore make $AD = a$, $CB = b$, $AF = x$, and let the given plane be $= cc$. And as the triangles FDC, FAE, are similar, as also the triangles DCB, AEG; we shall have the analogies $DF \cdot AF :: (DC \cdot AE ::)$

$BC \cdot EG$. That is, $a + x \cdot x :: b \cdot EG$. Therefore $EG = \frac{bx}{a+x}$. And be-

cause the triangle AEF, that is, half the rectangle of AF into EG, ought to be equal to the given plane cc , we shall at last have the equation $\frac{bxx}{2a+x} = cc$.

Equations
how formed
from different
values of the
same quan-
tity.

65. The proposing of the problems only, which hitherto I have taken for examples, has brought me immediately and directly to an equation; because it was required that the two quantities so found should be made equal. But this method will not thus succeed, when from certain quantities given, it shall be proposed to find others, without such a condition as will lead us expressly to an equation. Then it may be needful to use a little art to obtain it, and that will be by means of different properties, and compounding the figure if necessary, to find two different expressions of the same quantity, and so to make an equation between them. I said by means of different properties, because the same property, however managed, will always give the same expression. I shall produce three examples of this, which I think may suffice at present.

Given

67. Now when the equation of a problem is found, all that remains to be done is, to derive the value of the unknown quantity from it; that is, to reduce the unknown quantity to be equal to some known and given quantities, in which consists the solution of the problem. And this is called the *Resolution of the Equation*. Equations how reduced.

For this purpose we must call to our assistance the following Axioms.

1. If to two equal things we shall add equals, or if we shall subtract equals from them, the sums or the remainders will also be equal.
2. If equal things are multiplied or divided by equals, the products or quotients will also be equal.
3. If from equals a root be extracted with an equal index, the roots or quantities resulting will be equal.
4. If equals are raised to a power with an equal index, those powers or resulting quantities will be equal.

From the first of these axioms we learn, that if we should desire that any term of an equation, which is on one side of the mark of equality, should pass to the other side; this may always be done without destroying the equality of the terms. Let the equation be $ax + bb = -xx + cc$; if we add xx to both the members of this equation, it will be $ax + bb + xx = xx - xx + cc$, in which $xx - xx$ expunge one another, and there will remain $ax + bb + xx = cc$, where the term xx has passed into the first member of the equation; from whence if bb is to be taken away, it will be $ax + bb + xx - bb = cc - bb$; but $bb - bb$ expunging one another, the remaining equation will be $ax + xx = cc - bb$, where the term bb has passed into the second member of the equation. Wherefore in general, when we would have any term pass from one side of the equation to the other, it will be enough to expunge it on one side, and write it on the other with it's sign changed. In consequence of this, we may at pleasure make a term positive which in the equation is negative, and so on the contrary; and that will be by writing it on the opposite side, and changing it's sign. Therefore $aa - xx = bb$ will be the same as $aa - bb = xx$, or $xx = aa - bb$. Wherefore if there shall be the same term on each side of the equation, and affected with the same sign, they may both be expunged without injuring the equation. As, if it were $ax - xx = bb - xx$, it would be reduced to $ax = bb$. For, transposing the term $-xx$, it would be then $ax + xx - xx = bb$, where $xx - xx$ destroy each other. The same thing would follow, if, instead of transposing the term which is common to both members, it were added to both if in the equation it were negative, or subtracted from both if affirmative.

68. From the second axiom we learn, that if an equation should have fractions in it, it may always be freed from them without prejudice to the equation; by reducing every term to a common denominator, and then rejecting that Reduced by multiplication.

denominator: because equal quantities multiplied by equals make equal products. Let the equation be $a - \frac{xx}{b} = b$. Reducing all to a common denominator, it will be $\frac{ab - xx}{b} = \frac{bb}{b}$, and multiplying all by b , or rejecting the common denominator, it will be $ab - xx = bb$. And if besides we would have the term $-xx$ to be positive, it will be $ab = bb + xx$, or otherwise $xx = ab - bb$. Let the equation be $\frac{xx}{2} - \frac{bxx}{a} = ab$. Reducing to a common denominator, it will be $\frac{aax - 2bxx}{2a} = \frac{2aab}{2a}$, and multiplying all by $2a$, it will be $aax - 2bxx = 2aab$. And if we desire besides, that the term $-2bxx$ should be positive, and moreover that all the terms in which the letter x is concerned should be on one side of the equation, make $2bxx - aax = -2aab$; or reducing the whole equation to one side, by which it will be equal to nothing, it will be $2bxx - aax + 2aab = 0$.

Reduced by
division.

69. By the same axiom we may free any letter, or any power of a letter, in any equation, from it's co-efficient, or from any quantity in which it happens to be multiplied; and that is by dividing every term by that co-efficient. Now let there be $2bxx - aax = -2aab$, and let it be required to free the term $2bxx$ from it's co-efficient $2b$. Then dividing each member of the equation by the same quantity $2b$, the quotients $\frac{2bxx - aax}{2b} = -\frac{2aab}{2b}$ shall still be equal, and therefore $xx - \frac{aax}{2b} = -aa$. Again, if the equation is $ax - \frac{a^3}{b} = bb - \frac{3bxx}{2a} - bx$, and if it were desired that xx should be positive, freed from it's fraction and co-efficient, and that all the terms which any how contain the letter x should be on one side of the equation, and known terms on the other; write then $\frac{3bxx}{2a} + bx + ax = bb + \frac{a^3}{b}$, multiply all the terms by $2a$, and it will be $3bxx + 2abx + 2aax = 2abb + \frac{2a^4}{b}$; then divide every term by $3b$, and the equation will become $xx + \frac{2}{3}ax + \frac{2aax}{3b} = \frac{2}{3}ab + \frac{2a^4}{3bb}$, which has all the conditions required.

Reduced by
raising
powers.

70. From the fourth axiom we learn, that if an equation contains radicals or surds, it may be freed from them, by writing the surd term or terms on one side of the equation, and the rational quantities on the other, and then squaring each member of the equation if the root is quadratick, or cubing if cubick, &c. Thus if we had $\sqrt{aa - xx} + a = x$, we must write it thus, $\sqrt{aa - xx} = x - a$, and then squaring, $aa - xx = xx - 2ax + aa$, that is $2ax = 2xx$, or $x = a$.
Thus

Thus if the equation were $\sqrt[3]{aax - x^3} = a + x = 0$, write it $\sqrt[3]{aax - x^3} = a - x$, and it will be, by cubing, $aax - x^3 = a^3 - 3a^2x + 3ax^2 - x^3$. That is $4a^2x - 3ax^2 - a^3 = 0$, or by dividing by a , $4ax - 3x^2 - a^2 = 0$.

But if the radical terms be two or more, so that they will not vanish at one operation, it must be repeated as often as there is occasion. Thus $\sqrt{bx} = a + \sqrt{ax}$: write it thus, $\sqrt{bx} - \sqrt{ax} = a$; then squaring, it is $bx - 2\sqrt{abxx} + ax = aa$, that is $bx + ax - aa = 2\sqrt{abxx}$. And squaring again, $bbxx + aaxx + a^4 + 2abxx - 2aabx - 2a^3x = 4abxx$; that is $b^2x^2 - 2abx^2 + a^2x^2 - 2a^2bx - 2a^3x + a^4 = 0$. Thus $y = \sqrt{ay + yy - a\sqrt{ay - yy}}$ by squaring will be $yy = ay + yy - a\sqrt{ay - yy}$, that is $ay = a\sqrt{ay - yy}$, or $y = \sqrt{ay - yy}$. And squaring again, $yy = ay - yy$, or $2y = a$.

71. These things being premised, the manner of resolving equations will be How equations are to be resolved. easy, in order to obtain the value of the unknown quantity, in such terms as are known and given, and which serve to the solution of the problem. But first the equations are supposed to be freed from all asymmetry, that is from radicals, if the unknown quantity be under a *vinculum*; and then reduced to the most simple expression; by expunging superfluous terms, if such there be; by dividing of each member that shall be multiplied by the same quantity; or by multiplying if so divided. As if, for example, we had $\frac{axx - aax + aab}{b} = \frac{a^3 + aab}{b}$,

it would be reduced to $xx - ax = aa$. Further, by the first term of an equation is meant the aggregate of all those terms, which contain the highest power of the unknown quantity. By the second term is meant the aggregate of all those terms which contain the next inferior degree of the same quantity, and so on. By the known term is meant, the aggregate of all those terms which do not at all contain the unknown quantity. Whence in the equation $axx - bxx - bbx - aax = a^3 - b^3$, or else $axx - bxx - bbx - aax - a^3 + b^3 = 0$, the first term will be $axx - bxx$, or $a - b \times xx$. The second will be $-bbx - aax$, that is $-(aa + bb) \times x$. The known term is $-a^3 + b^3$. In the equation $aaxx - abxx + a^4 - b^4 - a^3b = 0$, the first term will be $aa - ab \times xx$; the second is wanting, and the known term is $a^4 - b^4 - a^3b$. In the equation $ax^3 + bx^3 - aaxx - a^4 = 0$, the first term will be $a + b \times x^3$, the second $-a^2x^2$, the third is wanting, and the fourth or known term is $-a^4$. And thus it is to be understood in all other equations. Here it may be observed, that a term such as $aaxx - bbxx$, (which is likewise to be understood of any other compound term, having contrary signs,) may be either a positive or negative quantity; it will be positive if a be greater than b , but negative if the contrary. So that when it shall be ordered hereafter to make such a term of an equation positive, we must have regard to this explanation.

Equations
further re-
solved, and
first simple
ones.

72. This being supposed, in order to resolve an equation; first, if it have a fraction, in the denominator of which the unknown quantity is found, it must be reduced to a common denominator. Secondly, the term of the highest power of the unknown quantity must be made positive, and all the terms containing the unknown quantity must be wrote in order on one side of the equation, and the known terms on the other side. And thirdly, if the first term, or that which contains the highest power of the unknown quantity, should have a denominator, it must be freed from it's fraction by what is said, § 68. Lastly, if it have a co-efficient, or be multiplied into any given quantity, it must be freed from this, by what has been taught, § 69.

Hence it is easy to perceive, that by proceeding after this manner, if the equation shall be simple, or have an unknown quantity of one dimension only, it will be now intirely resolved, and that unknown quantity will be found equal to known quantities only, which was the thing proposed to be done. As if the equation were $aa - ff = \frac{bbx - aax}{2m}$, and aa were greater than bb . Then to make that term positive which contains the unknown quantity, write it thus, $\frac{aax - bbx}{2m} = ff - aa$; and freeing it from the denominator, it will be $aax - bbx = 2mff - 2maa$; and then from the co-efficient, it will be $x = \frac{2mff - 2maa}{aa - bb}$, in which the value of x is now intirely known. If aa were less than bb , we might then write it thus, $x = \frac{2maa - 2mff}{bb - aa}$, which comes to the same without any occasion of transposition.

Equations
resolved,
having simple
powers.

73. When the unknown quantity is raised to any power, which power is the same in all the terms in which it is found; or, which is the same thing, if all those terms are conceived to make but one term; then the equation is to be resolved by the third axiom before, and we shall have the unknown quantity equal to known quantities only, by extracting such a root out of both members of the equation, as is denoted by the index of that power. Let the equation be $bb = aa - \frac{axx + bxx}{2c}$. Now to make the term positive in which x is found, write $\frac{axx + bxx}{2c} = aa - bb$; and to free it from it's fraction and co-efficient, write it $xx = \frac{2c \times aa - bb}{a + b}$, or by division, $xx = 2c \times \overline{a - b}$; and lastly, by extracting the square-root, $x = \pm \sqrt{2ac - 2bc}$. Here I put the sign of the root ambiguous, because of what is said at § 15. For the same reason, if it were $x^3 = a^3 + b^3$, we should have $x = \sqrt[3]{a^3 + b^3}$; and so of all others in general.

74. But

74. But if the equation contain the unknown quantity raised to it's square, Affected together with the rectangle or product of the same into known quantities, which quadratics is called the second term (and such an equation is called an *Affected Quadratic*, resolved. as it is called a *Simple Quadratic* when this second term is wanting); this being prepared as is aforesaid, to both members of the equation must be added the square of half the co-efficient of the second term, (that is to say, the square of half that quantity, whether integer or fraction, by which the unknown quantity is multiplied,) and then it is plain that the first member will always be a square, the root of which will be the aggregate of the unknown quantity, and of the half co-efficient with it's proper sign. And then extracting the root, this aggregate shall be equal to the square-root of the other member of the equation; and transposing the half co-efficient as a known quantity, we shall finally have the unknown quantity equal to the sum or difference (according to the nature of the signs) of the radical and the said half co-efficient. Thus let the equation be $xx + 2ax = bb$: if we add to each member the square of half the co-efficient of the second term, that is aa , the equation will be $xx + 2ax + aa = aa + bb$, and extracting the square-root, it will be $x + a = \pm \sqrt{aa + bb}$, and by transposing, it is $x = \pm \sqrt{aa + bb} - a$.

Let the equation be $bbx - aax - mxx + \frac{aabb}{m} = 0$. Making the greatest term positive, and ordering the equation, it will be $mxx + aax - bbx = \frac{aabb}{m}$, and dividing by m , and adding on both sides the square of half the co-efficient of the second term, it will be $xx + \frac{aa - bb}{m}x + \frac{a^4 - 2aabb + b^4}{4mm} = \frac{a^4 - 2aabb + b^4}{4mm} + \frac{a^2b^2}{m^2}$; and extracting the square-root, it is $x + \frac{aa - bb}{2m} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^4 - 2a^2b^2 + b^4}{4m^2} + \frac{a^2b^2}{m^2}}$, and reducing the radical to a common denominator, and transposing the known term $\frac{aa - bb}{2m}$, it will be $x = \frac{bb - aa}{2m} \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^4 + 2a^2b^2 + b^4}{4m^2}}$. But the root of this radical may be actually extracted, and is either $+\frac{aa + bb}{2m}$, or $-\frac{aa + bb}{2m}$, because of the ambiguous sign \pm . Therefore there will be two values of x , one is $x = \frac{bb - aa}{2m} + \frac{aa + bb}{2m} = \frac{bb}{m}$, and the other is $x = \frac{bb - aa}{2m} - \frac{aa + bb}{2m} = -\frac{aa}{m}$.

75. Therefore the ambiguity of the sign, which the extraction of the square-root always brings with it, supplies two values of the unknown quantity, which may be both positive, or both negative, or one positive and the other negative; and sometimes both imaginary, according to the known quantities of which they are composed. For example, in the final equation $x = \pm \sqrt{aa + bb} - a$, one value or $\sqrt{aa + bb} - a$ will be positive, because, as $\sqrt{aa + bb}$ is greater than a ,
H 2
the

the difference will be positive. The other value $-\sqrt{aa+bb}-a$ will be negative, as is evident. In the equation $x = a \pm \sqrt{aa-bb}$, (supposing b to be less than a ,) both the values will be positive, because $\sqrt{aa-bb}$ is less than a . And for the same reason, in the equation $x = \pm \sqrt{aa-bb}-a$, both the roots will be negative. Now, if b were greater than a , both would be imaginary, as I have already observed at § 15, because then $\sqrt{aa-bb}$ would be the square-root of a negative quantity. In the equation $x^4 = a^4 - b^4$, which requires twice the extraction of the square-root, that is, $xx = \pm \sqrt{a^4 - b^4}$, and thence $x = \pm \sqrt{\pm \sqrt{a^4 - b^4}}$, there are four values of x ; two real ones, of which one is positive and the other negative, that is, $x = \pm \sqrt{+ \sqrt{a^4 - b^4}}$, supposing b to be less than a ; the other two are imaginary, that is, $x = \pm \sqrt{- \sqrt{a^4 - b^4}}$; and when b is greater than a , all the four roots will be imaginary: and these observations may easily be applied to all other equations. These negative values or roots, which by some authors are called false ones, are not less real than the positive, and have only this difference, that if, in the solution of a problem, the positive be taken from a fixed point, or beginning of the unknown quantity towards one part, the negative are taken from the same

Fig. 10.

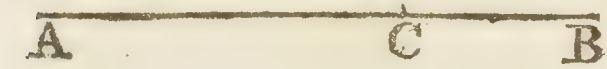


point towards the contrary part. Let A be the beginning of the unknown quantity x in a certain problem, and let the final equation (for example) be $x = \pm a$. If we take $AB = a$, and it be determined that the positive values shall proceed from A towards B; then shall $AB = a$ be the positive value of x . And consequently, taking $AC = AB$, but on the contrary part from the point A, we shall have $AC = -a$, or the negative value of x . And the problem shall have two solutions, one at the point B, and the other at the point C. But the practice of all this will be best understood by the solution of the problems which are here to follow.

Use of imaginary quantities.

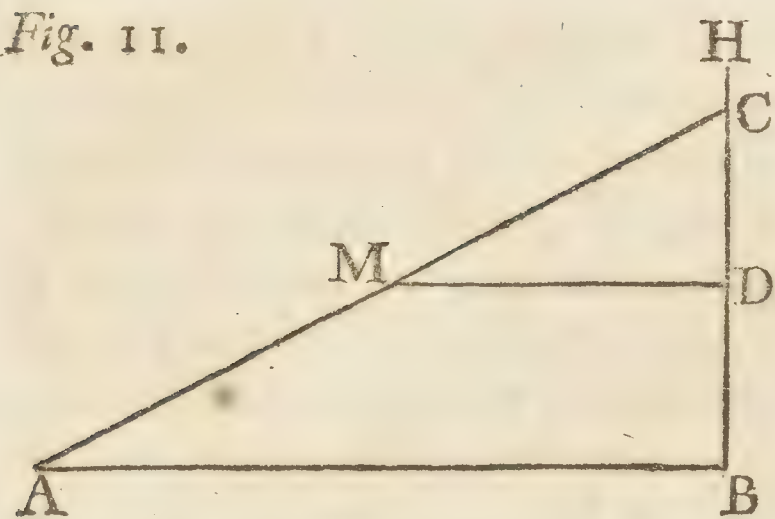
76. Therefore, whenever the equation to which we are led by the conditions of the problem shall supply us with none but imaginary values, this plainly declares, that the problem as now proposed does not admit of a real solution, but is absolutely impossible. The same thing is to be concluded, when the final equation brings us to an absurdity, such as if it should give us a finite quantity equal to nothing, or the whole equal to the part, or such like. We

Fig. 1.



should come to an absurdity of this kind, if in the right line $AB = a$, it were proposed to find such a point C, as that the square of the whole line should be equal to the two squares of the two segments. For, making $AC = x$, it would be $aa = xx + a - x)^2 = xx + aa - 2ax + xx$, that is $2xx = 2ax$, or $x = a$; which is as much as to say, that the part is equal to the whole. We should likewise fall into an inconsistency, if, assuming

Fig. 11.



assuming a right line, as AB, and raising an indefinite perpendicular upon it BH, we should seek for a point in this, as C, from whence we might draw the right line CA to the given point A, so as that the two lines CB, CA, may be parallel. For, making $BA = a$, $BC = x$, and taking $BD = \frac{1}{2}x$, and drawing DM parallel to BA; because of similar triangles CBA, CDM, it would be

$DM = \frac{1}{2}a$. But if CA and CB are parallel, it ought to be $DM = BA$,

and therefore $\frac{1}{2}a = a$, which is an impossible equation.

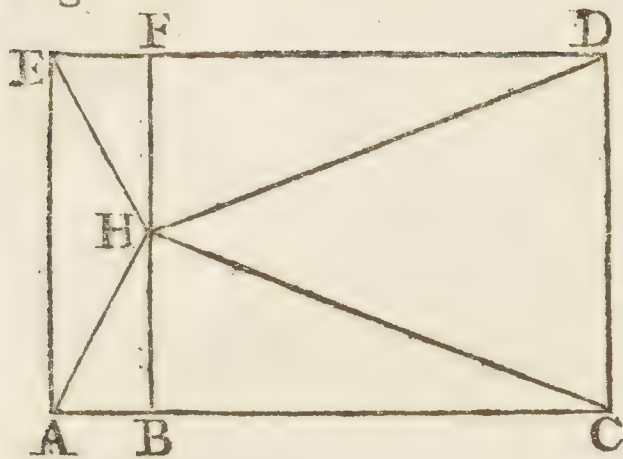
Now if it should be pretended, that the first of the two foregoing equations, or $2xx - 2ax = 0$, is no otherwise absurd, but that it supplies us with two values of x , which, though useless, are however real and consistent; relying upon this argument, that if we divide the equation by $2x - 2a$, there will result $x = 0$, a real value which solves the problem. For taking $x = 0$, or dividing the line AB in the point A, one part of it will be 0, and the other will be a . Therefore the square of the whole line will be equal to the squares of the two segments; that is, $aa = 0 + aa$. Now dividing the same equation by $2x$, there will result $x = a$, which is a real value, and resolves the problem, by dividing the line in the point B. Whoever should argue thus, as I said before, I should not venture to oppose him; but whatever is the true notion of this and such like equations, it is however certain, that they only make us know what we knew before.

For an example of an equation which brings us to an absurd conclusion, I have taken one which gives us a finite quantity equal to nothing, or the whole equal to the part. Yet this must be understood only when the unknown quantity cannot be of an infinite magnitude, and the problem is no more than a determinate problem; for otherwise such equations may be very true, as will be seen hereafter.

77. Sometimes we may meet with equations which contain the same quantities on both sides the mark of equality, and therefore when reduced bring us finally to this conclusion, that $0 = 0$. Such equations as these (which are called *Identical Equations*) inform us only, that the value of the quantity required may be what we please, as it vanishes out of the equation; and that the proposition is rather a theorem than a problem. Here follows an example of this.

In

Fig. 12.



In the given rectangle ACDE, from a given point B in the side AC is drawn BF parallel to the side AE; in BF is required such a point H, that drawing the lines HA, HC, HD, HE, to the several opposite angles, the sum of the squares of HA, HD, shall be equal to the sum of the squares of HE, HC. Make $AB = a$, $BC = b$, $CD = c$; and supposing H to be the point required, let $BH = x$, and therefore $HF = c - x$. Now the square of $HA = aa + xx$, that of $HC = bb + xx$, that of $HD = bb + cc - 2cx + xx$, and that of $HE = aa + cc - 2cx + xx$. And hence the equation $aa + xx + bb + cc - 2cx + xx = bb + xx + aa + cc - 2cx + xx$. Now as it is an identical equation, the same as $0 = 0$, which is as much as to say, that in the right line BF, wherever we take the point H it will always agree to the property required.

Equations
and problems
how divided.

78. Equations which reduced contain the unknown quantity of one dimension only, are called *Simple Equations*, or of the *first degree*. Those which contain the unknown quantity raised to the square, whether they are quadratics simple or affected, are said to be of the *second degree*. Those which contain the unknown quantity raised to the cube, however the other terms may be, are said to be of the *third degree*. And so accordingly are those of the *fourth*, *fifth*, and higher degrees. Moreover, those problems which are expressed by simple equations, as also those of the second degree, are called *Plane Problems*, because they may be constructed by the common Geometry of *Euclid*, or by rules and compasses only. All the others are called *Solid Problems*, because for their construction is required the description of certain curves, which therefore are called *Solid Places*. I shall say nothing here of the Resolution and Construction of Solid Problems, intending to treat of them expressly in Sect. IV.

Equations
may some-
times be de-
pressed to a
lower degree.

79. There are many equations, which at first sight seem to be of that degree which is intimated by the index of the greatest power of the unknown quantity, which, however, when duly managed may be brought down to an inferior degree. Of this kind are all those in which, besides the first term, which is that of the highest power of the unknown quantity, and the term which is entirely known, one other term is contained, in which the unknown quantity ascends to a power which is the square-root of the power of the first term. As if the equation were this, $x^4 - 2aaxx = b^4$; which being managed by the Rule of Affected Quadratics, is reduced to this, $xx = aa \pm \sqrt{a^4 + b^4}$; and therefore $x = \pm \sqrt{aa \pm \sqrt{a^4 + b^4}}$. After the same manner, this equation $x^6 + a^3x^3 - b^6 = 0$, being reduced, becomes $x^3 = \frac{-a^3 \pm \sqrt{a^6 + 4b^6}}{2}$, and therefore

therefore $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{-a^3 \pm \sqrt{a^6 + 4b^6}}{2}}$; and infinite others of a like nature. There

are others of the same kind, which by means of the extraction of a root may be brought down to an inferior degree. Thus $x^4 - 2ax^3 + aaxx - 2bbxx + 2abbx + b^4 = aabb + b^4$, having it's first member a square, the root of which is $xx - ax - bb$, may be reduced to a lower equation, $xx - ax - bb = \pm b\sqrt{aa + bb}$. Thus, in the equation $x^3 + 3axx + 3aax = b^3$, if we add a^3 on both sides, it will be $x^3 + 3axx + 3aax + a^3 = a^3 + b^3$, of which the first member is a cube, whose root is $x + a$. Therefore the equation reduced lower will be $x + a = \sqrt[3]{a^3 + b^3}$. But it is not always thus easy, to know what quantity may be added or subtracted to or from the first member of the equation, so that it may become a perfect power, nor can any method be assigned for it; so that the industry and practice of the analyst can only be of service in these cases.

80. But, if the proposed problem should be of such a nature, that one unknown quantity being assumed, would hardly or not at all be sufficient to have all the denominations that are necessary for finding the equation; in this case may be taken one, two, three, or as many more unknown quantities as are needful. And if the problem be determinate in it's own nature, it will always supply conditions for as many equations as are the unknown quantities assumed. Then, by means of each of these equations, one of the unknown quantities will be eliminated, or it's value may be found by the remaining and the given quantities; so that finally we shall arrive at the last equation, which will contain one unknown quantity only. The manner of performing these operations will be best understood by the examples.

First, let there be two simple equations, or of the first degree; as, suppose for example $a + x = b + y$, and $2x + y = 3b$; and let us eliminate y , and retain x . Now, by means of which we please of the two equations, suppose of the first, by the help of proper transpositions of the terms, we may find the value of y , which will be $y = a + x - b$. This value may be substituted instead of y in the second, and we shall have a new equation $2x + a + x - b = 3b$,

that is $x = \frac{4b - a}{3}$. And this value being substituted instead of x in either of

the two proposed equations, we shall have the value of $y = \frac{2a + b}{3}$. This may

also be obtained by deriving two values of y from the two equations, and comparing them together. For from the first equation we shall have $y = a + x - b$; and from the second, $y = 3b - 2x$; wherefore it will be, by comparison,

$a + x - b = 3b - 2x$, and thence $x = \frac{4b - a}{3}$, as before.

81. After

How they are
to be elimi-
nated.

81. After the same manner we must proceed, when the equations contain the unknown quantity, which is to be eliminated, raised to the second dimension; if by means of one of the two given equations, or by the transposition of the terms alone, or by the rule for simple or affected quadratics, we can have a value to be substituted in the other equation. Let the two equations be $xx + 5ax = 3yy$, and $2xy - 3xx = 4aa$. Now if we would eliminate y , the second equation will give $y = \frac{4aa + 3xx}{2x}$, and therefore $yy = \frac{16a^4 + 24aaxx + 9x^4}{4xx}$.

This value being substituted in the first equation, it will be $xx + 5ax = \frac{48a^4 + 72aaxx + 27x^4}{4xx}$; which, by reduction, will be $23x^4 - 20ax^3 + 72aaxx + 48a^4 = 0$. But if we would eliminate x , finding it's value by either of the two equations, for example by the second, we should have $x = \frac{y}{3} \pm \frac{\sqrt{yy - 12aa}}{3}$.

This being substituted in the first equation, it will become $\frac{2yy - 12aa \pm 2y\sqrt{yy - 12aa}}{9} + \frac{5ay \pm 5a\sqrt{yy - 12aa}}{3} = 3yy$. This being freed from radicals, and set in order, after a long calculation will come out $69y^4 - 90ay^3 + 72aayy + 40a^3y + 316a^4 = 0$.

Quantities to
be eliminated
by compari-
son.

82. Often by two equations, in which the unknown quantity to be eliminated is raised in both to the same degree, may be found by means of either of them the value of the highest power of the unknown quantity; and that is by putting that highest power alone on one side of the equation, and all the other terms on the other side: then these two values being compared to each other, will give an equation of a lower degree. The same operation may be repeated again, and so on, till we have an equation truly simple in respect of the unknown quantities, and consequently it's value expressed by the other unknown quantity, and by such as are known. Then this value being substituted in one of the given equations instead of the unknown quantity and it's powers, we shall have an equation expressed by the other unknown quantity only, and such as are known.

Let the two equations be $y^3 + aay = bxx$, and $y^3 - bxx = aax$, out of which y is to be eliminated. Therefore by the first it will be $y^3 = bxx - aay$, and by the second, $y^3 = aax + bxx$. Then by comparison, $bxx - aay = aax + bxx$, or $y = -x$. Then making a due substitution in either of the two equations, we shall have $-x^3 - aax = bxx$, or $x^3 + bx = -aa$. Again, let the two equations be $xx + 5ax = 3yy$, and $2xy - 3xx = 4aa$, from which we are to eliminate x . It will be by the first $xx = 3yy - 5ax$, and by the second, $xx = \frac{2xy - 4aa}{3}$. Therefore the equation will be $3yy - 5ax = \frac{2xy - 4aa}{3}$.

From

From hence we shall have $x = \frac{9yy + 4aa}{2y + 15a}$; and this value being substituted in one of the proposed equations, in the first for instance, it will be as is found above.

But if in the two equations the unknown quantity to be eliminated do not ascend to the same power in the highest terms, the equation of the lower degree is to be multiplied by such a power of the same quantity, that it may be of the same degree as the other; and then you are to proceed as before. Thus, if we have $y^3 = xyy + 3aax$, and $yy = xx - xy - 3aa$, and we are to expunge y ; multiply the second equation by y , and it will be $y^3 = xxy - xyy - 3aay$. Therefore $xxy + 3aax = xxy - xyy - 3aay$, which, being compared with the value of yy given by the second proposed equation $yy = xx - xy - 3aa$, will give $\frac{xxy - 3aay - 3aax}{2x} = xx - xy - 3aa$, or $3xxy - 3aay + 3aax = 2x^3$, and therefore $y = \frac{2x^3 - 3aax}{3xx - 3aa}$; which being substituted in one of the proposed equations, suppose in the second, will be $\frac{4x^6 - 12aax^4 + 9a^4xx}{9x^4 - 18aaxx + 9a^4} = xx - 3aa - \frac{2x^4 - 3aaxx}{3xx - 3aa}$; or reducing to the same denominator, $x^6 + 18a^2x^4 - 45a^4x^2 + 27a^6 = 0$.

In particular cases particular expedients may often be used, and there may be more expedite methods of coming to a conclusion; but these do not fall under any rule. An example may be seen of this in these two equations, $x + y + \frac{yy}{x} = 20b$, and $xx + yy + \frac{y^4}{xx} = 140bb$. If we would eliminate x we must transpose y in the first equation, which will then be $x + \frac{yy}{x} = 20b - y$; and squaring both parts, it will be $xx + 2yy + \frac{y^4}{x^2} = 400bb - 40by + yy$, that is $xx + yy + \frac{y^4}{x^2} = 400bb - 40by$. But the first member of this equation is the same as that of the second proposed equation, and therefore it will be $400bb - 40by = 140bb$, or $y = \frac{13b}{2}$.

83. By a calculation more laborious and long, but performed after the same manner, if there be three, four, or more equations, and as many unknown quantities, we may reduce them to one only. For by means of one equation we may exterminate one unknown quantity, the value of which, expressed by the others and known quantities, may be substituted in every one of the remaining equations. Then by means of another equation we may eliminate another unknown

unknown quantity, and it's value may be substituted in those that remain; and so on to the end. Let there be three equations $x + y = c + z$, $z + x = a + y$, $z + y = b + x$, and we would have only one equation including z . From the first equation take the value of y , that is $y = c + z - x$, and substitute this value in the other two, which are then $z + x = a + c + z - x$, and $z + c + z - x = b + x$, or rather $2x = a + c$, and $2z = b - c + 2x$, which will then be in the place of the second and third. In this last, instead of $2x$ substitute it's value from the other, and then it will be $2z = b - c$

+ $a + c$, that is $z = \frac{a+b}{2}$. Also, the same may be done after another

manner, thus. From each of the three equations given take the value of y , for example, that is $y = c + z - x$, $y = z + x - a$, $y = b + x - z$. By the comparison of two and two of these equations, which you please, you will form two equations which have no y . From one of which equations you may take the value of one of the unknown quantities, and substitute it in the other.

Thus, if you make the two equations $c + z - x = z + x - a$, and $c + z - x = b + x - z$, from the first take the value of x , or $x = \frac{a+c}{2}$, and

substitute it in the second; then $c + z - \frac{a+c}{2} = b + \frac{a+c}{2} - z$; that is,

$z = \frac{a+b}{2}$, as above. In the same manner we must proceed if the given

equations be more in number, and more compounded. The use of the rules here taught will be seen in the solution of the problems.

Sometimes
the number
of equations
may be in-
sufficient.

84. Whenever the conditions, or the data of the problem, do not supply us with as many equations as are the unknown quantities assumed, but that two of them will at last remain; the problem will always be indeterminate, and we cannot find the value of one of the unknown quantities but on supposing and determining the value of the other; in which case every indeterminate problem becomes determinate. To give some idea of these indeterminate problems, though by way of anticipation; let it be proposed to seek two numbers, the sum of which is equal to 30. I call the first number x , the second will be $30 - x$ by the condition of the problem, nor shall I then have any means of forming another equation. Then I will call the second y , and by the condition of the problem it will be $x + y = 30$. Now because it is not possible to find matter for another equation, by which to eliminate one of the two unknown numbers, the problem of it's own nature will be indeterminate. But if I assign a determinate value to one of the unknown quantities, and suppose, for example, that $y = 8$, then it will be $x = 30 - y = 22$. But because we may assign infinite values to y successively, the values of x will also be infinite, and consequently the problem is capable of an infinite number of solutions. I will take another example of this from Geometry. Let it be proposed to find a rectangle

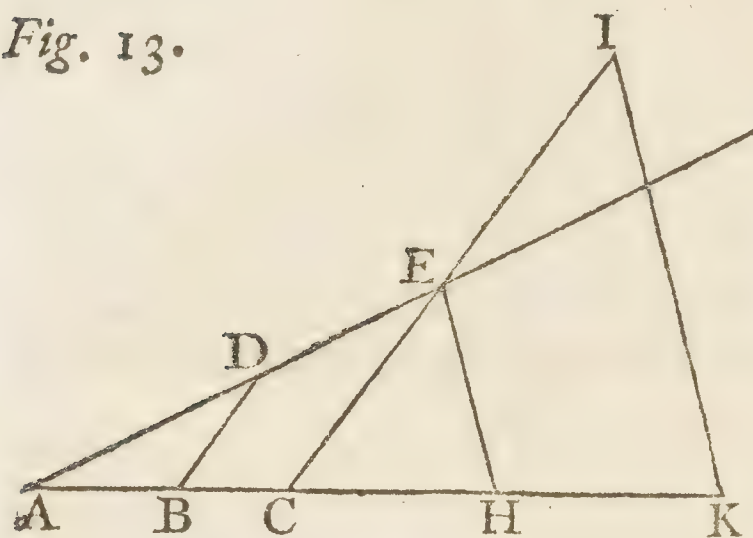
rectangle equal to a given square. Let y be the base of the rectangle required, it's height x , and aa the given square. Then I shall have the equation $aa = xy$; and not having matter for another equation, the problem remains indeterminate; there being in fact infinite rectangles equal to the given square, the base may be varied infinitely, and the height also relatively to it. But if I add this condition to it, that the base, for example, shall be equal to half the height, or $\frac{1}{2}x$, then it will be $y = \frac{1}{2}x$, and the equation will be $\frac{1}{2}xx = aa$. And thus one of the unknown quantities may be varied an infinite variety of ways, and likewise the other, so that the problem may have an infinite number of solutions.

85. On the contrary, if the conditions of the problem, which are to be fulfilled, shall supply us with more equations than there are unknown quantities, the problem will be more than determinate, and by that means may become impossible. For, in order to be possible, the values of the given quantities must be restrained to a given law, which will often afford innumerable cases in which the problem will become possible. In the foregoing example, of finding two numbers the sum of which shall be 30, when nothing more is required, it will be an indeterminate problem; but if the condition be added, that besides the difference of the squares of those numbers shall be given, suppose for example 60, the problem will then be determinate, we having in this case two equations, that is, $x + y = 30$, and $xx - yy = 60$; so that, taking from the first the value of y , and substituting it's square in the second, it will be $x = \frac{960}{60}$, or $x = 16$, and consequently $y = 14$. But besides, if we should annex a third condition, that the sum of the squares of these numbers should be equal to a given number, the problem is more than determinate, and therefore possible in one case only, in which the number given for the sum of the squares is just the same as those squares, that is 452. Thus, in the other example of a rectangle equal to a given square, if we require that the rectangle should be upon a given base, the problem will be determinate; but more than determinate if we should also require, that it's sides should have a given ratio to each other. It will be possible only in one case, wherein this ratio is exactly the same as results from the other condition of the given base, and from the equality to the given square.

86. The equations being resolved, and the values of the unknown quantities being found in geometrical problems, it remains to give the constructions of these values; that is, from the given lines of the problem we must find such, that may exactly represent the unknown quantities, which were proposed to be found. In the first place, let the value of the unknown quantity be a simple

rational fraction, such as $x = \frac{ab}{c}$. If we convert this into an analogy, it will be $c \cdot b :: a \cdot x$; so that the fourth proportional required is $\frac{ab}{c}$. Therefore,

Fig. 13.



upon the indefinite right line AC taking $AB = c$, and at any angle drawing $BD = b$, and through the points A, D, drawing the indefinite line AE; if we make $AC = a$, and draw CE parallel to BD, it will be $CE = \frac{ab}{c} = x$. Or else in any angle EAC drawing the indefinite right lines AE, AC, if we take $AB = c$, $AD = b$, $AC = a$, and from the point B to the point D draw the right line BD; from the point C draw CE parallel to BD, it will be $AE = \frac{ab}{c}$. Therefore by these or other theorems or problems of Geometry may be found a fourth proportional to the three given quantities, or a third if only two be given; and we shall have the value of the unknown quantity expressed by lines. If it be $x = \frac{abc}{mn}$, the first analogy is had by taking any one of the letters of the denominator, and two of the numerator; for example, $m \cdot b :: a \cdot \frac{ab}{m}$, which is therefore the fourth. Then let this be found as before, and call it f ; therefore it will be $x = \frac{fc}{n}$. The second analogy then will be thus, $n \cdot f :: c \cdot x = \frac{fc}{n}$, which will be the fourth $= \frac{abc}{mn}$. Taking therefore (Fig. 13.) $AB = m$, $AC = a$, $BD = b$, it will be $CE = \frac{ab}{m} = f$; whence producing CE indefinitely, take $CH = n$, $CK = c$, and draw HE; if from the point K the right line KI be drawn parallel to HE, it will be $CH \cdot CE :: CK \cdot CI$; that is, $n \cdot \frac{ab}{m} :: c \cdot \frac{abc}{mn} = CI = x$.

If the dimensions in the numerator and denominator shall be more in number, the analogies must also be more, but always in the same order.

Or if they consist of several terms.

87. Whence if the value of the unknown quantity shall be compounded of several simple fractions, or of integers and fractions; find the lines which are equal to each term, and adding or subtracting them according to their signs, they will give the line which expresses the value of the unknown quantity.

88. From

88. From this rule we may derive a method of transforming any plane into another with a given side; a solid into another with one or two given sides, &c.; that is, any term of two, three, or more dimensions, into another which include any given letter, if it be of two dimensions; or one or two given letters, if it be of three dimensions. Thus let the term be bb which we desire to transform into another, which shall include the letter a . By this letter a let bb be divided, and it will be $\frac{bb}{a}$. By the given rule (Fig. 13.) a line may be found equal to $\frac{bb}{a}$, which call m . Then is $\frac{bb}{a} = m$, and therefore $bb = am$. Let ffc be so transformed as that it may include ab . A line may be found equal to $\frac{ffc}{ab}$, which call n . Then it will be $\frac{ffc}{ab} = n$, or $ffc = abn$. If it had been required that it should only include a , we should have made $\frac{fc}{a} = n$, and therefore $\frac{ffc}{a} = fn$, or $ffc = afn$. This is manifest, and needs no other examples.

89. This being supposed, let the value of the unknown quantity be a complicated fraction, or more than one, that is, let the denominator have several terms; as $x = \frac{a^3}{bb + cc}$. One of the terms, suppose cc , is to be transformed into another, which shall include the letter b , and let it be bm . Then we shall have $\frac{a^3}{bb + bm}$, which is resolved into these two analogies, $b : a :: a : \frac{aa}{b}$, the fourth, and $b + m : \frac{aa}{b} :: a : \frac{a^3}{bb + bm}$, the other fourth. And making as usual the construction by the help of similar triangles, we shall have the line which is the value of the unknown quantity x . We might as well have left the term cc in the denominator, and have transformed bb into another, which should have included the letter c , for example cn ; then the fraction would have been $\frac{a^3}{cc + cn}$, which is resolved into these analogies, $c : a :: a : \frac{aa}{c}$, and $c + n : \frac{aa}{c} :: a : \frac{a^3}{cc + cn}$. Let the fraction given be $x = \frac{b^3c}{a^3 + b^3}$; in the denominator the term b^3 may be transformed into aan , and the quantity to be constructed will be $\frac{b^3c}{a^3 + a^2n}$. This may be resolved into three analogies, $a : b :: b : \frac{bb}{a}$, and $a : b :: \frac{bb}{a} : \frac{b^3}{a^2}$, and $a + n : c :: \frac{b^3}{a^2} : \frac{b^3c}{a^3 + a^2n}$. If the denominator should have three terms, then perhaps two of them must be transformed; if it should have

have four, then three are to be transformed, &c. Thus, if there were given $x = \frac{b^3c}{a^3 + b^3 - bcc}$, after having made $b^3 = aan$, and $bcc = aap$, then it would be $x = \frac{b^3c}{a^3 + a^2n - a^2p}$. This, in the same manner, is resolved into three analogies, $a . b :: b . \frac{bb}{a}$, $a . b :: \frac{bb}{a} . \frac{b^3}{a^2}$, and $a + n - p . c :: \frac{b^3}{a^2} . \frac{b^3c}{a^3 + a^2n - a^2p}$
 $= \frac{b^3c}{a^3 + b^3 - bcc}$.

It can make no difficulty if the numerator of the fraction should be complicate, or have several terms; because the fraction will be equivalent to so many fractions as are the terms of the numerator. Thus $\frac{aa \pm bb}{a^3 - c^3}$ is the same as $\frac{aa}{a^3 - c^3} \pm \frac{bb}{a^3 - c^3}$. Therefore each being resolved in the manner here explained, the sum or difference of the lines so found, according as their signs may require, will give the line which is the value of the unknown quantity required.

Other fractions constructed.

90. But without multiplying operations, by reducing a fraction with a complicate numerator to several fractions, it will be enough to make use of a convenient transformation of the terms of the numerator and denominator, after the same manner as has already been seen for the denominator. Thus let it be $x = \frac{aa + bc}{a + b}$; transform the term bc into am , and the fraction will be $\frac{aa + am}{a + b}$; whence it is $a + b . a + m :: a . \frac{aa + am}{a + b}$. Let it be $\frac{aacc - abcf}{acf + bff}$; make $bf = am$, and the fraction will be $\frac{aacc - aacm}{acf + amf}$, that is $\frac{acc - acm}{cf + mf}$; then $f . a :: c . \frac{ac}{f}$, and $c + m . c - m :: \frac{ac}{f} . \frac{acc - acm}{fc + mf}$.

But if the numerator and denominator of the fraction be such, that without transforming any term they may be resolved into their linear components; then no use is to be made of transformation, which would only multiply operations unnecessarily. Such will be the fractions $\frac{aab}{aa - cc}$, $\frac{a^3 - ab^2}{ac + cc}$; and such others.

The first of these may be resolved into these two analogies, $a + c . a :: a . \frac{aa}{a + c}$, and $a - c . b :: \frac{aa}{a + c} . \frac{aab}{aa - cc}$. And the second into these two, $c . a :: a + b . \frac{aa + ab}{c}$, and $a + c . a - b :: \frac{aa + ab}{c} . \frac{a^3 - abb}{ac + cc}$. Thus very often, without

without transforming the terms, it will be more convenient to make use of the Extraction of Roots, for resolving a fraction into analogies. Thus the fraction

$\frac{aa + bc}{a}$ may be resolved into this analogy, $a \cdot \sqrt{aa + bc} :: \sqrt{aa + bc} \cdot \frac{aa + bc}{a}$;

though more simply thus, $a + \frac{bc}{a}$. The fraction $\frac{a^3 + abb}{aa + cc}$ is resolved into

these two analogies, $\sqrt{aa + cc} \cdot \sqrt{aa + bb} :: \sqrt{aa + bb} \cdot \frac{aa + bb}{\sqrt{aa + cc}}$, and

$\sqrt{aa + cc} \cdot a :: \frac{aa + bb}{\sqrt{aa + cc}} \cdot \frac{a^3 + abb}{aa + cc}$. Yet sometimes it may be necessary to

transform a term; as in the fraction $\frac{a^3 + bbc}{aa - cc}$, which cannot be resolved even

by radicals, unless one of the terms of the numerator be transformed, suppose

bbc into acm , so that it may be $\frac{a^3 + acm}{aa - cc}$. For then it may be $a + c \cdot a ::$

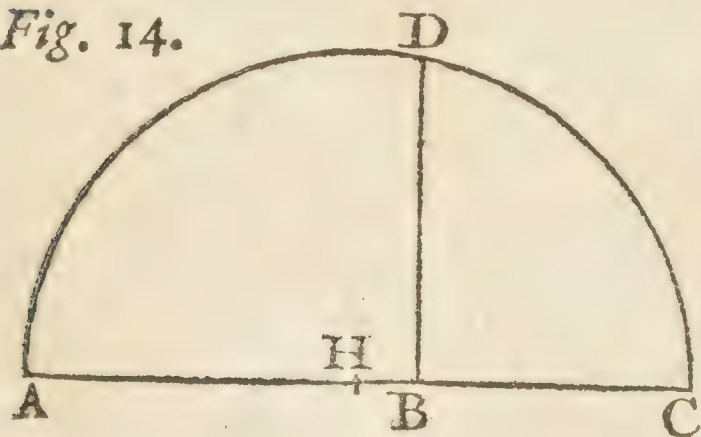
$\sqrt{aa + cm} \cdot \frac{a\sqrt{a^2 + cm}}{a + c}$; and $a - c \cdot \sqrt{aa + cm} :: \frac{a\sqrt{aa + cm}}{a + c} \cdot \frac{a^3 + acm}{aa - cc} =$

$\frac{a^3 + bbc}{aa - cc}$. The same obtains in fractions more compounded.

Among the variety of ways here produced, it cannot easily be determined which will be best in particular cases; perhaps more than one should be tried, that we may pitch upon that which will furnish out the simplest construction of the proposed problem.

91. As to what concerns the finding such lines as are expressed by radicals; Radicals how in the third place, let the value of the unknown quantity be an integer quadra-constructed. tick radical, suppose $x = \sqrt{ab}$. That is, x is a mean proportional between

Fig. 14.



a and b . Take $AB = a$, and directly to it $BC = b$, and bisecting the composed line AC in H , with radius HC describe the semicircle ADC , and from the point B raise the perpendicular BD terminated at the circumference. The rectangle of AB into BC will be equal to the square of BD ; that is, $ab = BD^2$, and therefore $\sqrt{ab} = BD = x$. Let it be $x = \sqrt{2aa}$; taking $AB = 2a$, and $BC = a$, it will be $BD = \sqrt{2aa}$, &c.

And if the radical consisted of complex quantities, as $x = \sqrt{4aa \pm ab}$, or else $x = \sqrt{3aa \pm ab \pm 2ac}$; in the first case, making $AB = 4a \pm b$; and in the second, $AB = 3a \pm b \pm 2c$, and taking $BC = a$; if a semicircle ADC be described upon the diameter AC , and a perpendicular BD be raised, that perpendicular

pendicular in the first case will be equal to $\sqrt{4aa \pm ab} = x$, and in the second, $\sqrt{3aa \pm ab \pm 2ac} = x$.

And, in general, let the terms under the *vinculum* be as many as you please, and combined with their signs in any manner, it's value may always be constructed by means of a semicircle, when every term is multiplied into the same letter; making, for example, one of the segments CB equal to that letter, and the other segment BA equal to the sum or difference of all the terms divided by that letter, and raising the perpendicular BD. It is easy to perceive, that if the combination of the signs should make the segment BA a negative quantity, that then the quantity under the *vinculum* would be negative, and therefore that the value of the unknown quantity would be imaginary. Such would be $x = \sqrt{ab - ac}$, supposing c to be greater than b .

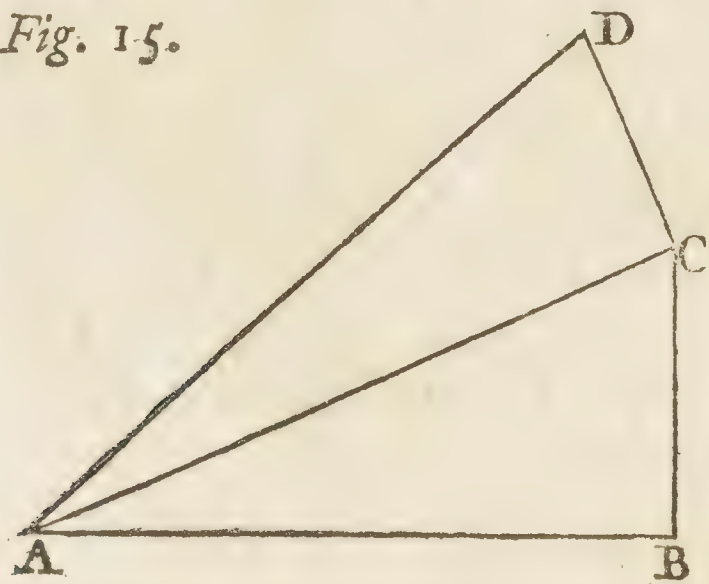
How radicals
are to be
transformed,
in order to
construction.

92. Now if every term be not multiplied by the same letter, they may become such by transforming those that are not so. Thus, if $x = \sqrt{aa \pm bb}$, make $bb = am$, and it will be $x = \sqrt{aa \pm am}$. Then taking $AB = a \pm m$, that is $AB = a \pm \frac{bb}{a}$, and $BC = a$, and describing the semicircle, it will be $BD = \sqrt{aa \pm bb} = x$. In like manner, having given $x = \sqrt{aa + bb - cc}$, make $bb = am$, $cc = an$, and it will be $\sqrt{aa + am - an} = x$; and taking $AB = a + m - n$, and $BC = a$, it will be $BD = \sqrt{aa + bb - cc} = x$.

Quadratics
constructed
without
transforma-
tion.

93. But however the terms may be, without making any alteration, quadratick radicals may always be constructed, either by a right-angled triangle alone, or by that and a circle together. Let it be $x = \sqrt{aa + bb}$, and take

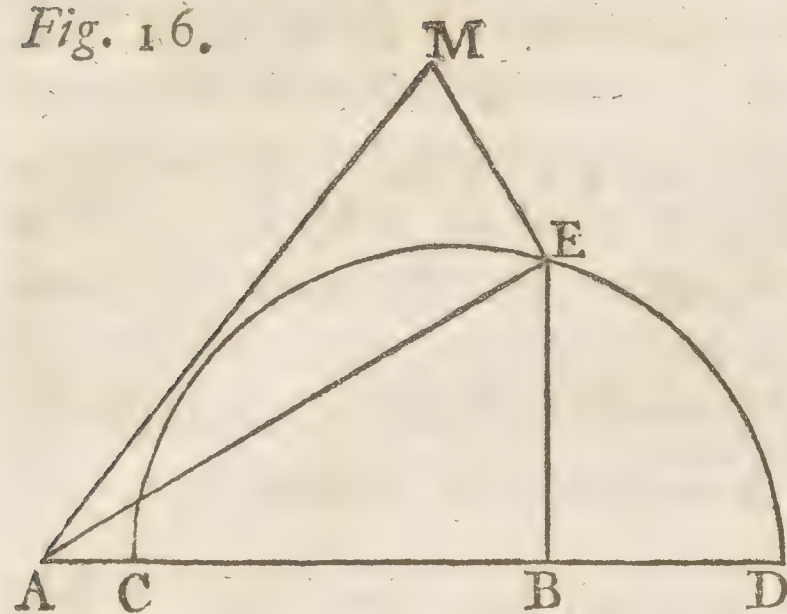
Fig. 15.



$AB = a$, and $BC = b$ perpendicular to AB , it will be $AC = \sqrt{aa + bb} = x$. If $x = \sqrt{2aa}$, make $AB = a$, and $BC = a$, and it will be $AC = \sqrt{2aa}$. If $x = \sqrt{3aa}$, make, as at first, $AB = BC = a$, and upon the right line AC raising the perpendicular $CD = a$, it will be $AD = \sqrt{3aa}$. If $x = \sqrt{5aa}$, make $AB = 2a$, $BC = a$, then $AC = \sqrt{5aa}$. If $x = \sqrt{aa + bb + cc}$, make $AB = a$, $BC = b$ and perpendicular to AB , and upon AC raise the perpendicular $CD = c$; then the hypotenuse AD will be $= x = \sqrt{aa + bb + cc}$; and so on

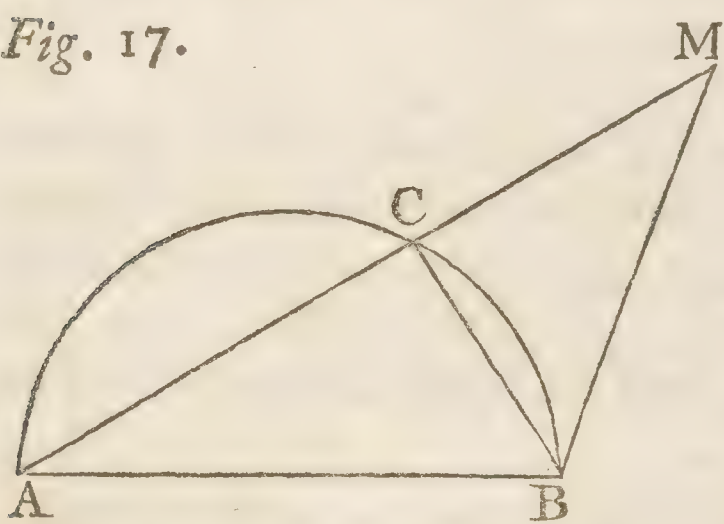
to quantities more compounded. If $x = \sqrt{aa + bc}$, though the term bc be not transformed,

Fig. 16.



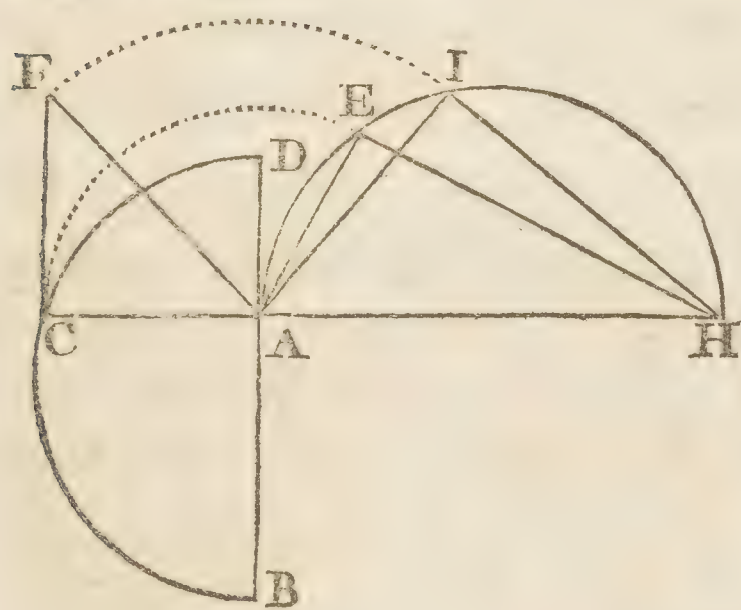
$AE = \sqrt{aa + bc + cc}$. If there should be more terms, the operations might

Fig. 17.



$= \sqrt{aa - bb - hh}$. If $x = \sqrt{aa - bc}$, or $x = \sqrt{aa - bc - ce}$; taking $AB = b$

Fig. 18.

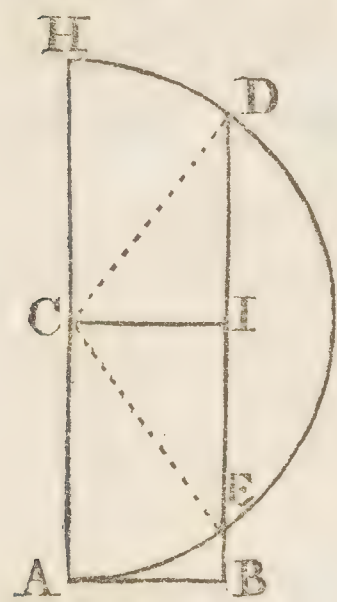


transformed, in the manner shown above, taking $AB = a$, $BC = b$, $BD = c$, upon the diameter CD describe the semicircle CED , then the ordinate BE will be $= \sqrt{bc}$; and drawing the hypotenuse AE , it will be $= x = \sqrt{aa + bc}$. If $x = \sqrt{aa + bc + ee}$, upon AE draw the perpendicular $EM = e$, and it will be $AM = x = \sqrt{aa + bc + ee}$. Let $x = \sqrt{aa + bc + cc}$, taking $BC = b + c$, $BD = c$, it will be $BE = \sqrt{bc + cc}$, and $AE = \sqrt{aa + bc + cc}$. If there should be more terms, the operations might increase, but not the difficulty. Let $x = \sqrt{aa - bb}$; on the diameter $AB = a$, let the semicircle ACB be described, in which inscribe the chord $AC = b$; then, because of the right angle ACB , it will be $BC = \sqrt{aa - bb}$. If $x = \sqrt{aa - bb + hh}$, produce AC to M , so that it may be $CM = b$; and drawing BM , it will be $= x = \sqrt{aa - bb + hh}$. If $x = \sqrt{aa - bb - hh}$, in the semicircle ACB inscribe the chord $AC = \sqrt{bb + hh}$; then $BC = \sqrt{aa - bb - hh}$. If $x = \sqrt{aa - bc}$, or $x = \sqrt{aa - bc - ce}$; taking $AB = b$ in the first case, and $= b + e$ in the second, add directly $AD = c$, $AH = a$, if with the diameters BD , AH , be described the two semicircles BCD , AEH ; the ordinate AC in the first case will be $= \sqrt{bc}$, and in the second $= \sqrt{bc + ce}$, and therefore, taking $AE = AC$, and drawing the chord EH , it will be $\sqrt{aa - bc}$ in the first case, and $= \sqrt{aa - bc - ce}$ in the second. If it were $x = \sqrt{aa - bc - ee}$, make $AB = b$, $AD = c$, and besides, taking $CF = e$ perpendicular to AC , it will be $AF = \sqrt{bc + ee}$. Wherefore, making $AI = AF$, it will be $IH = x = \sqrt{aa - bc - ee}$.

If $x = \sqrt[4]{a^4 + b^4}$, that is $x = \sqrt{\sqrt{a^4 + b^4}}$, transform the second term b^4 into $aamm$, and it will be $x = \sqrt{\sqrt{a^4 + a^2m^2}}$; and taking the square aa out of

they are $x = -\frac{1}{2}a \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bb}$, and $x = \frac{1}{2}a \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bb}$. And by the construction, it being $CA = CD = CE = \frac{1}{2}a$, and $AB = b$, it will be $CB = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bb}$, and therefore $BE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bb} - \frac{1}{2}a$, which is the positive value of the unknown quantity in the first equation; and BD taken negatively, $= -\frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bb}$, will be the negative value. Thus BD , taken positively, $= \frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bb}$, is the positive value of the unknown quantity in the second equation; and because of CB greater than CE , EB will be negative, $= \frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bb}$, which is the negative value.

Fig. 21.



The third and fourth formulas are thus constructed. Taking $CA = \frac{1}{2}a$, and AB at right angles equal to b , as in the foregoing construction; and with radius CA describing a semicircle ADH ; draw BD parallel to AC . The two right lines BE , BD , will be the two values, or the two negative roots of the equation $xx + ax + bb = 0$; and the two positive values in the equation $xx - ax + bb = 0$. Now resolving the equations, the third will give us $x = -\frac{1}{2}a \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, and the fourth $x = \frac{1}{2}a \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$. Therefore, drawing the right lines CD , CE , and CI perpendicular to BD , it will be $ID = IE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, and therefore BE negative $= -\frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, the negative value of the unknown quantity in the third equation, because BI is greater than IE . And BD taken negative will be $= -\frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, the other negative value in the same third equation. On the contrary, BD will be positive, $= \frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, and BE positive, $= \frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, both being the positive values of the unknown quantity in the fourth equation.

Therefore, to construct any affected quadratick equation, it will suffice to assume the radius CA equal to half the co-efficient of the second term, and the tangent AB equal to the square-root of the last term; and the rest as in one or the other of the two figures, according as the last term shall be positive or negative. Thus, for example, to construct the equation $xx + ax - bx - aa + cc = 0$, make $AC = \frac{a-b}{2}$, and $AB = \sqrt{aa - cc}$ in the first of the two figures, if a be greater than c ; and $AB = \sqrt{cc - aa}$, in the second, if a be less than c . By this example it may be seen how we are to proceed in all other cases.

A case may happen, that, in the construction of Fig. 21, the right line BD shall not cut, but touch the circle ADH ; or that it may neither cut nor touch it. It will touch it when it is $AC = AB$, that is, $\frac{1}{2}a = b$, and the two values of the unknown quantity of the equation, BE , BD , shall be equal, one positive

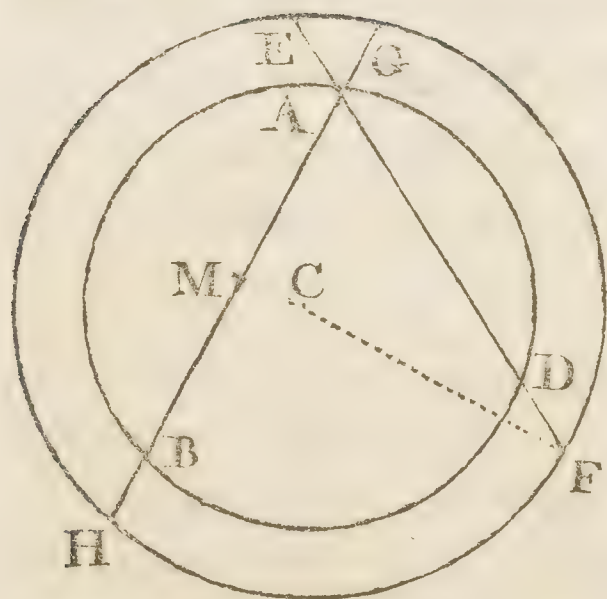
and the other negative. It will neither touch it nor cut it when BA is greater than AC , that is, b greater than $\frac{1}{2}a$; and the unknown quantities will not have any value at all, but will be impossible or imaginary. And this agrees perfectly with the analytical resolution, because when it is $\frac{1}{2}a = b$, it will be $\frac{1}{4}aa - bb = 0$, and therefore the two values $x = -\frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, and $x = \frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$, will be $x = -\frac{1}{2}a$, and $x = \frac{1}{2}a$. And when $\frac{1}{2}a$ is less than b , then $\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb}$ will be an imaginary quantity, and therefore the two values of the unknown quantity will be imaginary.

Or otherwise
thus con-
structed.

95. In these constructions it is necessary to find the square-root of the last term of the equation, which is to supply us with the tangent AB of the circle. If therefore this last term is equal to a rectangle, or if we have a mind to make it so, which thing is in our own power, the four formulas foregoing may be thus constructed, after another manner.

1. $xx + ax - bc = 0$.
2. $xx - ax - bc = 0$.
3. $xx + ax + bc = 0$.
4. $xx - ax + bc = 0$.

Fig. 22.

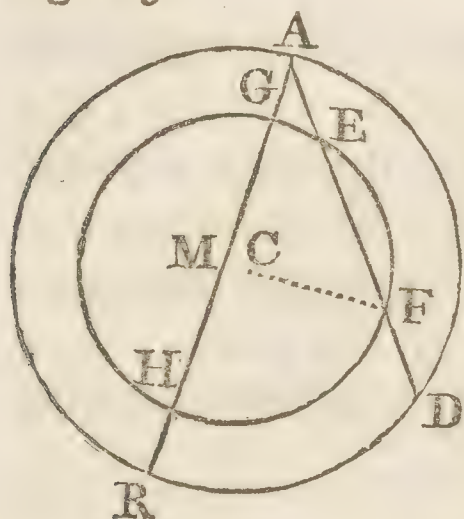


Let the circle BAD be described with any diameter, provided it be not less than either a or $b - c$; where I suppose b greater than c , or that b is the greater side of the rectangle given, and c the lesser side. Now, from any point A in the periphery let the two chords $AB = a$ and $AD = b - c$ be inscribed in the circle, and let this last be produced to F , so as that $DF = c$. With centre C of the first circle, and with radius CF , let a second circle FGH be described, which may cut the chords AD , AB produced, in the points F , E , G , H . This being done, AG will be the positive value or root, and AH the negative, in the equation $xx + ax - bc = 0$. And on the contrary, AG will be the negative root, and AH the positive, in the equation $xx - ax - bc = 0$.

Now, to apprehend the reason of this, it is necessary to have recourse to two properties of the circle, which are demonstrated by geometricians; which are, that the right lines EA , DF , are equal to each other, as also the two GA , BH , are equal, and that the rectangles $EA \times AF$, and $GA \times AH$ are also equal. These two theorems being supposed, the line BA is to be bisected in M . Then, by *Euclid*, ii. 6, the square of MG will be equal to the square of MA , together with the rectangle $BG \times GA$, that is $HA \times AG$, that is $FA \times AE$. But the

the square of MA, by the construction, is equal to $\frac{1}{4}aa$, and the rectangle FA \times AE is equal to bc . Therefore it will be $MG = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bc}$, and thence $AG = -\frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bc}$, the positive value. But $AH = \frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bc}$, whence AH negative $= -\frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bc}$ the other value which is negative; both exactly as they arise from the resolution of the first equation. For the same reason, AG negative will be $= \frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bc}$, and AH positive $= \frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa + bc}$, which are the values of the unknown quantity in the second equation.

Fig. 23.



As to the third and fourth equation, let any circle RAD be described with a diameter not less than a , or $b + c$. From any point of the periphery A let two chords be inscribed in it, that is $AR = a$, and $AD = b + c$; and making $DF = c$, with centre C of the first circle, and with radius CF, let another circle GHF be described, which shall cut the two chords AR, AD, in the points G, H, F, E. This being done, AG, AH, shall be the two negative values in the third equation, and the two positive in the fourth. For, bisecting RA in M, it will be, by *Euclid*, ii. 6, the square of MA equal to the

rectangle $HA \times AG$, that is $RG \times GA$, that is $DE \times EA$, together with the square of MG . Therefore it will be $\frac{1}{4}aa = bc + MGq$, or $MG = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bc}$. And therefore $-MA + MG$, that is GA negative, will be $= -\frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bc}$. And $-MG - MR$, that is GR negative, will be $= -\frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bc}$, both the negative values of the unknown quantity in the third equation. In like manner, $MG + MR$, that is $\frac{1}{2}a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bc}$, will be GR positive; and $MA - MG$, that is $\frac{1}{2}a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bc}$, will be AG positive, both the positive values of the unknown quantity in the fourth equation.

It is plain, both by the construction of Fig. 23, and by the resolution of the third and fourth equations, that when it is $bc = \frac{1}{4}aa$, the circle HGEF will touch the right line RA, and the two values will be equal. And if bc shall be greater than $\frac{1}{4}aa$, it will neither touch it nor cut it, and then the two values will become imaginary.

Having thus laid down the principal rules, I shall proceed to show their use in the solution of some particular Problems.

PROBLEM I.

An arithmetical problem. 96. Let there be a certain sum of shillings, which is to be distributed among some poor people; the number of which shillings is such, that if 3 were given to each, there would be 8 wanting for that purpose; and if 2 were given, there would be an overplus of 3 shillings. It is required to know, what was the number of the poor people, and how many shillings there were in all.

Let us suppose the number of poor to be x ; then, because the number of shillings was such, that, giving to each 3, there would be 8 wanting; the number of shillings was therefore $3x - 8$. But, giving them 2 shillings a-piece, there would be an overplus of 3; therefore again the number of shillings was $2x + 3$. Now, making these two values equal, we shall have the equation $3x - 8 = 2x + 3$, and therefore $x = 11$ was the number of the poor. And because $3x - 8$, or $2x + 3$, was the number of the shillings, if we substitute 11 instead of x , the number of shillings will be 25.

PROBLEM II.

A problem of equable motion.

97. The velocities of two bodies being given, their distance, and the difference of time in which they begin to move in a right line; the point in that line, and the time is required, in which the bodies will meet.

Fig. 24.



Let the first body be at A, the velocity of which is such, that it would describe the space c in the time f . Let B be the second body, with such a velocity, that it would describe the space d in the time g . Let the difference of time in which they begin to move be h , and let their distance AB be e . First, let them move the same way, and let them come together at the point D. Make $AD = x$, then $BD = x - e$. To obtain an equation it must be considered, that, having given the difference of time from the beginning of the motion of the body A, and of the body B, the time must be found employed by the body A, and also by the body B, and to the lesser of these times, or to that of the body which moves last, must be added the given difference, and then these two portions of time ought to be made equal. Therefore, by the rule of proportion, we must say, if the body A describe the space c in the time f , in what time will it

describe

describe the space x ? That is, $c \cdot f :: x \cdot \frac{fx}{c}$, which is therefore the fourth term. Likewise, if the body B describe the space d in the time g , in what time will it describe the space $x - e$? That is, $d \cdot g :: x - e \cdot \frac{gx - ge}{d}$, which is the fourth term. Therefore the time of the body A is $\frac{fx}{c}$, and the time of the body B is $\frac{gx - ge}{d}$, and their difference is b . And if the body A began to move after the body B, it will be $\frac{fx}{c} + b = \frac{gx - ge}{d}$; and reducing to a common denominator, it will be $fdx + cdb = cgx - cge$, that is, $cgx - fdx = cdb + ceg$; and, dividing by $cg - fd$, it is $\frac{cdh + ceg}{cg - df} = x$.

If the body A move before the body B, it will be $\frac{fx}{c} = b + \frac{gx - ge}{d}$; and reducing to a common denominator, it is $dfx = cdb + cgx - ceg$, that is, $cgx - dfx = ceg - cdb$. And, dividing by $cg - df$, it is $x = \frac{ceg - cdb}{cg - df}$. Now, if instead of x we substitute it's value now found, in the expreffion of the whole time $\frac{fx}{c} + b$ in the first case, and in $\frac{fx}{c}$ in the second, we shall have the time required.

I shall apply the formula to some examples. Let the body A have such a velocity, as to move 9 miles in 1 hour, and the body B to move 15 miles in 2 hours; and let them be distant from each other 18 miles, and let B begin to move 1 hour before A. Then it will be $b = 1$, $f = 9$, $c = 9$, $g = 2$, $d = 15$, $e = 18$; and therefore $x = \frac{324 + 135}{18 - 15} = 153$. Substitute this value instead of x , and also the others, in the expreffion of the time $\frac{fx}{c} + b$, and it will be $= 18$. Therefore the two moving bodies will be together at the distance from the point A of 153 miles, after 18 hours from the beginning of the motion.

Let the body A have such a velocity as to move 4 miles in 1 hour, and the body B to move 5 miles in 1 hour, and let them be distant 6 miles, and A begin to move 2 hours before B. Therefore it will be $b = 2$, $f = 4$, $c = 4$, $g = 1$, $d = 5$, $e = 6$. Taking the formula of the second case, it will be $x = \frac{24 - 40}{4 - 5} = 16$. And substituting this value of x with the others in the expreffion

expression of the time $\frac{fx}{c}$, it will be $= 4$. Therefore the two bodies A and B will be together at the distance of 16 miles from the point A, after 4 hours from the beginning of the motion.

But if the two bodies move contrary ways, or towards each other, let them meet, for example, in the point M; then calling $AM = x$, and retaining the same denominations as above, BM only will be changed, which will now be $= e - x$; and consequently the time of the body B to describe the space BM will be $\frac{ge - gx}{d}$. Wherefore, if A begin it's motion after the body B, it will be $\frac{fx}{c} + b = \frac{ge - gx}{d}$; and if it begin it's motion first, it will be $\frac{fx}{c} = b + \frac{ge - gx}{d}$; of which equations the first is $fdx + cdb = cge - cgx$, that is $x = \frac{cge - cdb}{cg + fd}$; and the second is $fdx = cdb + cge - cgx$, or $x = \frac{cge + cdb}{fd + cg}$.

Let the body A have such a velocity, as to describe 7 miles in two hours, and the body B 8 miles in 3 hours, and let them be distant 59 miles, and A begin to move 1 hour before B. Therefore it will be $b = 1$, $f = 2$, $c = 7$, $g = 3$, $d = 8$, $e = 59$; and therefore, taking the second formula $x = \frac{cge + cdb}{fd + cg}$, and substituting these values, it will be $x = \frac{1239 + 56}{21 + 16}$, that is $x = 35$. Therefore the two bodies will meet each other at the distance of 35 miles from the point A, after 10 hours from the beginning of motion; as will be seen by substituting these values in the expression $\frac{fx}{c}$, which is the whole time of motion.

PROBLEM III.

Euphron, a famous problem of Archimedes.

98. Having given the mass of the crown of King Hiero, made up of a mixture of gold and silver, and the specific gravity of gold, of silver, and of the crown; it is required to find the quantity of each metal in the crown.

Let the mass of the crown be represented by m , the specific gravity of gold to silver be as 19 to 10 $\frac{1}{3}$, and to the specific gravity of the crown as 19 to 17. Make x the quantity of gold in the crown, and therefore $m - x$ will be the quantity of the silver. The mass of a body divided by it's density or specific gravity

gravity is equal to it's volume ; therefore the volume of the crown will be $\frac{m}{17}$, that of the gold $\frac{x}{19}$, and that of the silver $\frac{m-x}{10\frac{1}{2}}$. But the volume of the crown is equal to both the volumes of the gold and silver together which compose it. Therefore we shall have the equation $\frac{m}{17} = \frac{x}{19} + \frac{m-x}{10\frac{1}{2}}$, that is, by reducing it to order, $\frac{19 - 10\frac{1}{2}}{19 \times 10\frac{1}{2}} x = \frac{17 - 10\frac{1}{2}}{17 \times 10\frac{1}{2}} m$, and therefore $x = \frac{6\frac{2}{3} \times 19}{8\frac{2}{3} \times 17} m$, or $x = \frac{190}{221} m$. Hence, supposing, for example, the mass of the crown to be 5 pounds, the quantity of the gold in it will be $4\frac{6}{221}$ pounds, and of the silver $\frac{1}{221}$ parts of a pound.

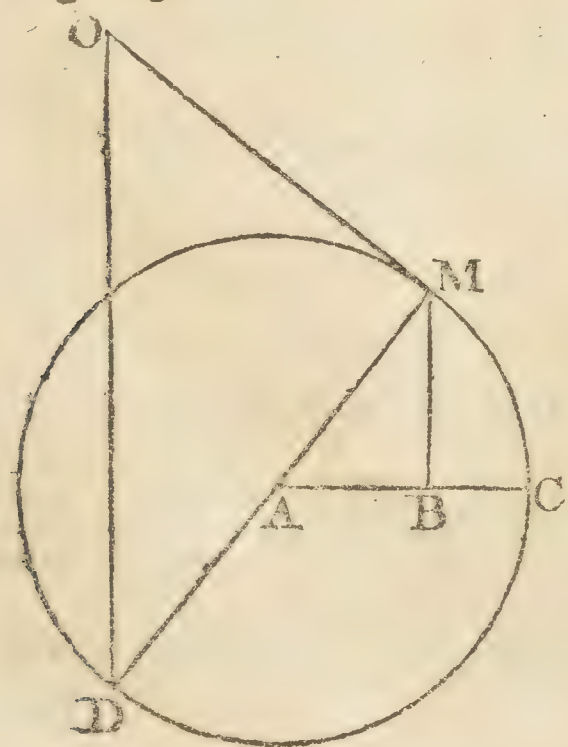
PROBLEM IV.

99. Let there be two weights so related, that if we take from the first 1 pound, the remainder shall be equal to the second weight increased by 1 pound. And, adding 1 pound to the first, and taking 1 pound from the second, the sum shall be double to the remainder. The quantity of each weight is required. An arithmetical problem.

Let us call the first weight x , and the second y . Then it will be $x - 1 = y + 1$ by the first condition, and $\frac{x+1}{2} = y - 1$ by the second. By the first we obtain this value $y = x - 2$, which, substituted in the second, will give $\frac{x+1}{2} = x - 3$, and therefore $x + 1 = 2x - 6$; that is, $x = 7$, and consequently $y = 5$.

PROBLEM V.

Fig. 25.



100. In a given circle DCM, a line AB being given, which is intercepted between the centre and the line MB, drawn from the extremity of the diameter DM perpendicular to AC: it is required to find a point O in the tangent MO, from whence the rectangle of OM into MB may be equal to the rectangle of DM into AB. A geometrical problem.

Make $AB = b$, $AM = a$, $MO = x$; it will be $MB = \sqrt{aa - bb}$, and by the condition of the problem, $x\sqrt{aa - bb} = 2ab$, that is, $x = \frac{2ab}{\sqrt{aa - bb}}$.

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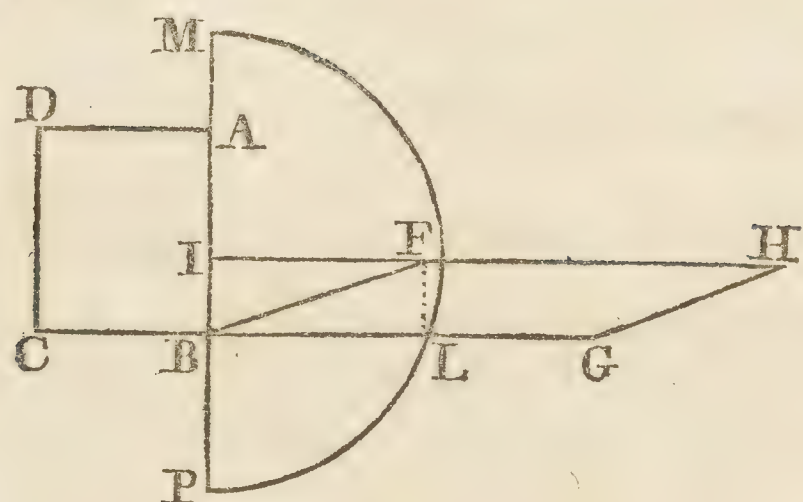
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From the point D let there be drawn DO parallel to BM; then the triangles MBA, DMO, will be similar, and therefore it will be $MB \cdot BA :: DM \cdot MO$, that is $\sqrt{aa - bb} \cdot b :: 2a \cdot MO = \frac{2ab}{\sqrt{aa - bb}} = x$.

PROBLEM VI.

Another.

Fig. 26.



101. A rectangle being given, a parallelogram is required, the sides of which are multiples in a given ratio of the sides of the rectangle, and its area submultiple.

Let ABCD be the given rectangle, $AB = a$, $BC = b$, and therefore the area $= ab$. Let the parallelogram required be BFHG, whose side BF should be to AB as

n to e ; and therefore $BF = \frac{an}{e}$. The side

BG should be to BC as m to e ; and therefore $GB = \frac{bm}{e}$. Lastly, the area BFHG should be to the given rectangle ab , as e to r . Make $BL = x$, and therefore, drawing FL perpendicular to BG, it will be $FL = \sqrt{\frac{aann}{ee} - xx}$.

Wherefore the parallelogram BFHG, that is $FL \times BG$, will be $\frac{bm}{e} \sqrt{\frac{aann}{ee} - xx}$. And, since this should be to the rectangle ABCD as e to r , we shall have the analogy $\frac{bm}{e} \sqrt{\frac{aann}{ee} - xx} \cdot ab :: e \cdot r$; whence the equation

$$\frac{bmr}{ee} \sqrt{\frac{aann}{ee} - xx} = ab. \text{ And taking away the radical, it will be } \frac{aann}{ee} - xx = \frac{aae^4}{mmrr}, \text{ that is } xx = \frac{aann}{ee} - \frac{a^2e^4}{m^2r^2}; \text{ and extracting the square-root, } x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{aann}{ee} - \frac{aae^4}{mmrr}}.$$

In the side BA take $BI = \frac{aee}{mr}$, and $IM = \frac{an}{e}$; and with centre I, radius IM, describe the semicircle MLP. The ordinate will be $BL = \sqrt{\frac{aann}{ee} - \frac{aae^4}{mmrr}} = x$. Then from the point L, raising the perpendicular $LF = BI$, and drawing BF,

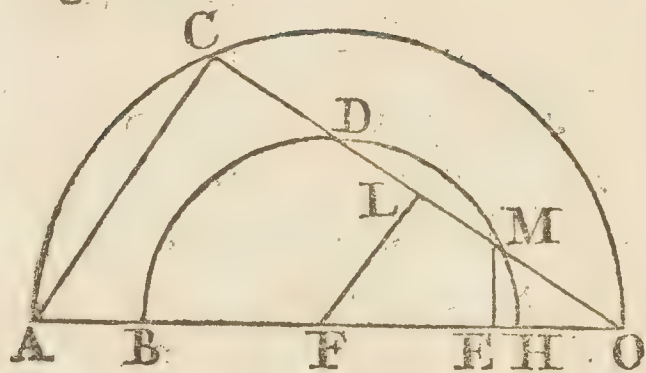
perpendicular to RG ; and taking $RH = RI = RA$, and through the points I, H , the sphere being cut by two other planes perpendicular to HI , and by two others through SN, FO , perpendicular to NO , the cube will be inscribed. For, because, by the construction, as it plainly appears, the planes are perpendicular to one another, and it being $AR = RI = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$, it will be, by the property of the circle $KQEP$, the ordinate $RQ = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}aa}$, and therefore $IQ = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}aa} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$, and $IO = \sqrt{KI \times IQ} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$; and consequently all the sides are equal, as was to be demonstrated.

From the construction of this problem arises a pretty simple synthetical demonstration. Since AU is a third part of the radius AC , the rectangle CAU , that is the square of AR , will be a third part of the square of the radius, and therefore $AR = RI$. If from the centre A of the sphere be drawn a right line AI to the point I , the square of AI will be double the square of AR , that is, two third parts of the square of the radius. And if from the said centre A a radius AO be supposed to be drawn, the square of IO will be equal to the square of AO , lessened by the square of AI ; that is, equal to the square of the radius, lessened by two third parts of the same square, and therefore equal to one third part of the square of the radius, and consequently IO is equal to AR , &c.

PROBLEM VIII.

Another,
producing
an identical
equation.

Fig. 28.



103. Two concentric circles ACO, BDH , being given, from the point O to draw a chord in such manner, that it may be $OM = DC$.

Let OC be the chord required, and let F be the centre. Make $FH = a$, $FO = b$, and letting fall the perpendicular ME to AO , let $FE = x$. Then $EM = \sqrt{aa - xx}$, $EO = b - x$, and therefore $OM = \sqrt{aa - 2bx + bb}$. From the point C draw CA to the extremity of the radius FA . Then the two triangles OEM, OCA , will be similar, and therefore $OM \cdot OE :: OA \cdot OC$. That is, $\sqrt{aa - 2bx + bb} \cdot b - x :: 2b \cdot OC = \frac{2bb - 2bx}{\sqrt{aa - 2bx + bb}}$. But, by *Euclid*, iii. 36, it is $DO \times OM =$

$BO \times OH$; and therefore $DO \cdot BO :: OH \cdot OM$; that is $DO = \frac{a + b \times b - a}{\sqrt{aa - 2bx + bb}}$.

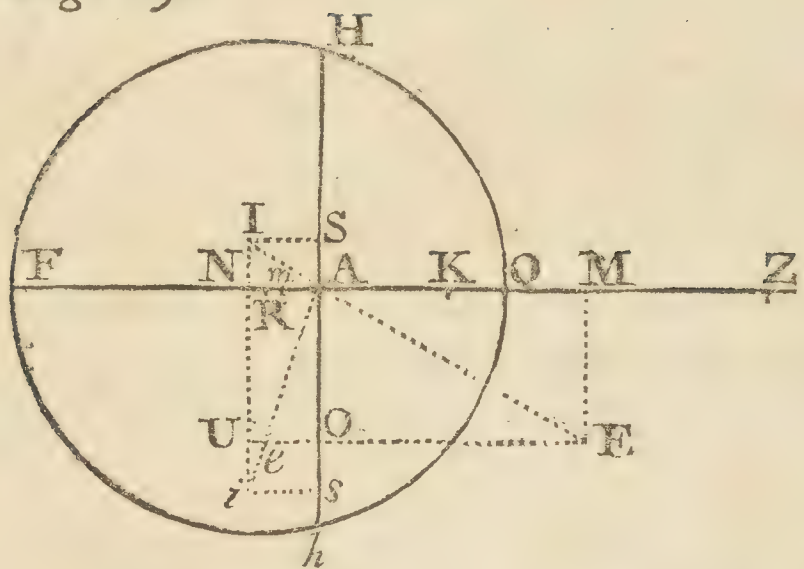
And consequently $CD = CO - DO = \frac{bb - 2bx + aa}{\sqrt{aa - 2bx + bb}} = \sqrt{bb - 2bx + aa}$.

But, by the condition of the problem, it ought to be $OM = CD$. Therefore
it

it will be $\sqrt{bb - 2bx + aa} = \sqrt{aa - 2bx + bb}$, which is an identical equation. Whence we gather, that, however we may draw the chord OC from the point O, it will always be $OM = CD$. And this may also be known, by drawing from the centre F the perpendicular FL to any chord whatever OC. For F being the centre of both the circles, the right line FL will bisect both DM and CO; and therefore, if from the equals LC, LO, we take the equals LD, LM, there will remain equals CD, MO.

PROBLEM IX.

Fig. 29.



104. The indefinite right line NZ being proposed, and three points N, A, K, being given in it, a fourth point M is required, such that NM may be a third proportional to NK, AM.

Because the three points N, A, K, are given, make $NA = a$, $NK = b$, $AM = x$, and therefore $MN = a + x$. Then, by the condition of the problem, we shall have $b \cdot x :: x \cdot a + x$; and, reducing this analogy to an equation, it will be $xx = ab + bx$,

or $xx - bx = ab$, which is an affected quadratick. Wherefore, if we add to each side the square of half the co-efficient of the second term, that is $\frac{1}{4}bb$, it will be $xx - bx + \frac{1}{4}bb = ab + \frac{1}{4}bb$; and extracting the square-root, it is

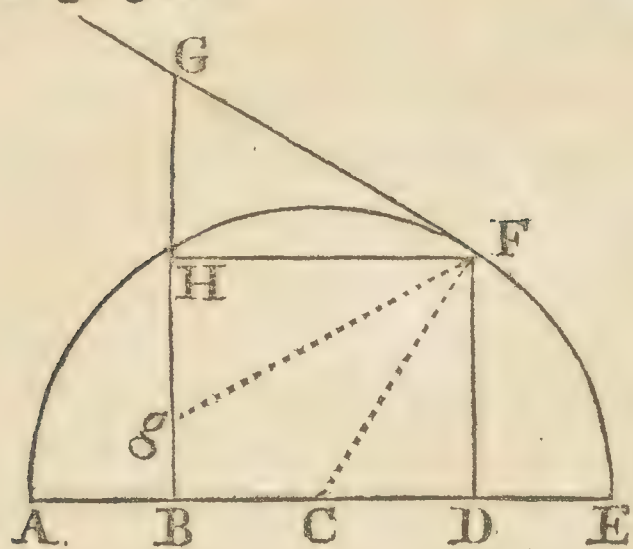
$$x - \frac{1}{2}b = \pm \sqrt{ab + \frac{1}{4}bb}, \text{ that is } x = \frac{b \pm \sqrt{4ab + bb}}{2}.$$

On the right line NZ produced both ways indefinitely, take AR, AQ, equal to each other, and each equal to $NK = b$; and RF four times NA, or $RF = 4a$. Then it will be $AF = 4a + b$. With the diameter FQ let a semicircle FHQ be described; at the point A the ordinate will be $AH = \sqrt{4ab + bb}$. Then adding directly $AO = NK = b$, and bisecting OH in S, it will be $OS = \frac{b + \sqrt{4ab + bb}}{2} = x$. Then taking $AM = OS$, the point required will be M,

as to the positive root. For, describing the rectangles SN, AU, MO, and drawing the diagonals AI, AE; because it is $OS = \frac{b + \sqrt{4ab + bb}}{2}$, it will be $AS = \frac{\sqrt{4ab + bb} - b}{2}$, and the rectangle $OS \times SA$ will be equal to ab , that is, equal to the rectangle $OA \times AN$. Therefore the sides of these rectangles will be.

PROBLEM X.

Fig. 31.



105. The diameter AE of the circle AFE being A geometrical problem. given, and the two portions CB, CD, from the centre C, and raising the perpendiculars DF, BH; in BH produced, such a point G is required, that, drawing the right line GF to the point F, the rectangle GF \times FD may be equal to the rectangle AC \times BD.

Draw FH parallel to AE, and make the radius CA = r , CB = a , CD = b ; it will be DF = $\sqrt{rr - bb}$ = BH, and make HG = x . Therefore HF = CB + CD = $a + b$, and GF = $\sqrt{aa + 2ab + bb + xx}$. Then, by the condition of the problem, we shall have $\sqrt{aa + 2ab + bb + xx} \times \sqrt{rr - bb} = ar + br$, and, to take away the asymmetry, it will be $a^2r^2 + 2abr^2 + b^2r^2 = a^2r^2 + 2abr^2 + b^2r^2 + r^2x^2 - a^2b^2 - 2ab^3 - b^4 - b^2x^2$, and, by reducing, $r^2x^2 - b^2x^2 - a^2b^2 - 2ab^3 - b^4 = 0$. That is, $x^2 = \frac{a^2b^2 + 2ab^3 + b^4}{r^2 - b^2}$; and, extracting the square-root, it is $x = \pm \frac{ab + bb}{\sqrt{rr - bb}}$. Therefore x , the quantity

sought, is a fourth proportional to FD, DC, and FH. Now, because the angles in D and H are right, if we make the angles GFH, gFH, each equal to the angle CFD, the triangles GFH, gFH, CFD, will be similar, and the points G, g, (that is G in respect to the positive value, and g in respect of the negative value,) will satisfy the question. For it will be FG (or Fg) . FH :: FC . FD. But FH = BD, FC = AC; so that it will be GF (gF) . BD :: AC . FD. And therefore GF (gF) \times FD = BD \times AC.

It is easy to perceive, that, in respect of the positive value, it is enough to draw the tangent FG at the point F, because the angles GFC, HFD, are right angles. And taking away the common HFC, the angles GFH and CFD will be equal.

— $yy - aa$, and from the second, $xx = aa - yy - \frac{2aby}{c}$. Whence the equation $2dy - yy - aa = aa - yy - \frac{2aby}{c}$. That is, $dy = aa - \frac{aby}{c}$, or (making $\frac{ab}{c} = f$) $y = \frac{aa}{d+f}$, which is a value of y expressed by known quantities only. This substituted instead of y in the equation $xx = 2dy - yy - aa$, we shall have at last $xx = \frac{2aad}{d+f} - \frac{a^4}{(d+f)^2} - aa$, or $xx = \frac{a^2d^2 - a^2f^2 - a^4}{(d+f)^2}$, and thence $x = \pm \frac{a\sqrt{dd - ff - aa}}{d+f}$, a value expressed by given quantities only.

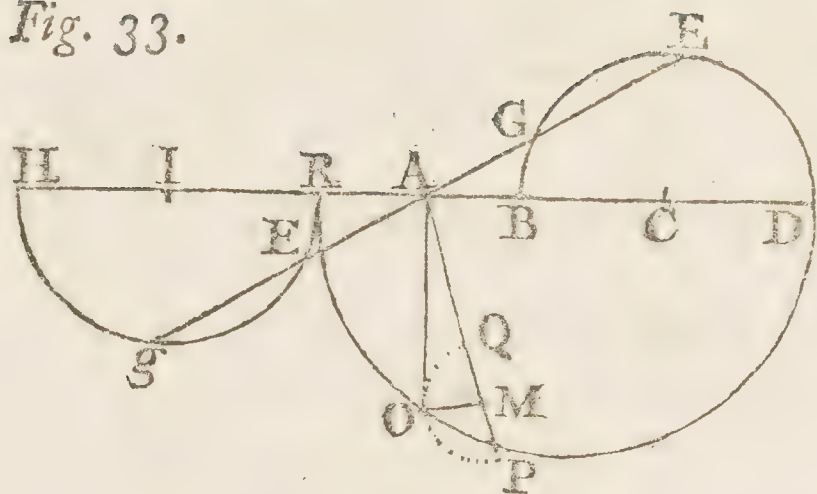
Draw AK indefinitely, making the angle KAB equal to the given angle GDP ; and from the point E let fall the indefinite perpendicular EM , and from the point A the right line AL perpendicular to AK . Then making DR perpendicular to PD , the angle RDG will be equal to the angle DGF . In like manner, the angle LAE will be equal to the same DGF , and besides, the angles at E and F are right ones. Therefore the triangles LAE , GDF , will be similar, and thence $EL = \frac{ab}{c} = f$, and $AL = \sqrt{aa + ff}$. In EL produced take $LM = d$, and with centre L , radius LM , let a circle be described, which shall cut AK in K . And, because the angle KAL is a right one, the ordinate will be $AK = \sqrt{dd - ff - aa}$. Whence, making $En = AK$, and drawing MA , and nH parallel to it from the point n , it will be $ME : EA :: nE : EH$; that is, $d + f : a :: \sqrt{dd - ff - aa} : \frac{a\sqrt{dd - ff - aa}}{d+f} = EH = x$. This being done, with centre L , and radius LA , let a circle OCQ be described, and at the point H raising the perpendicular CH , draw CA , CB , and ACB shall be the triangle required. For, by *Euclid*, iii. 32, the angle ACB is equal to the angle KAE , that is, by the construction, to the angle GDP ; and, by the property of the circle, $PC = \sqrt{OP \times PQ} = \frac{df + ff + aa}{d+f}$; and therefore $HC = \frac{aa}{d+f}$. And, by making the calculation, we shall find, that the sum of the squares of AC and CB is to the triangle ACB precisely in the ratio of $4d$ to a .

The ambiguous sign of the final equation gives us two equal values of x , one positive, and the other negative. If, therefore, EH taken towards A be considered as positive, then EH taken towards B , and equal to EH , will be the negative value; which will require the same construction.

It is evident, that the problem will be impossible as often as dd is less than $ff + aa$, that is, LM less than LA ; for then the radical will become impossible, or only imaginary.

PROBLEM XII.

Another. Fig. 33.



107. The semicircle BED being given, and a point A being given in the diameter produced; from that point to draw a secant AE in such manner, that the intercepted part GE may be equal to the radius CB.

Make $CB = c$, $AB = b$, $AD = a$, and $AG = x$. Therefore, by the condition of the problem, it will be $AE = c + x$.

Now, by *Euclid*, iii. 36, the rectangle EAG is equal to the rectangle DAB, and therefore we shall have the analogy $AE \cdot AD :: AB \cdot AG$. That is, $c + x \cdot a :: b \cdot x$. Whence the equation $xx + cx = ab$; which is an affected quadratick, and, being resolved as usual, will give us $x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c$.

On the right line DA produced, taking $AR = AB = b$, let the semicircle ROD be described on the diameter RD; and drawing the ordinate AO, it will be $= \sqrt{ab}$. Draw $OM = \frac{1}{2}c$ perpendicular to AO, and it will be $AM = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab}$. Then with centre M, and radius MO, let a semicircle QOP be described, and it will be $AQ = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}c^2 + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c$, the positive value of x ; and $AP = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab} + \frac{1}{2}c$. Wherefore AP, taken negatively, will be the negative value. Then, if with centre A, and radius AQ, an arch were described, it would cut the semicircle BED in G the point required. And if, on the other side, the semicircle RGH be described on the diameter RH = BD, an arch on the same centre, described with radius AP, will cut it in the point required g, which belongs to the negative value. For it being $EA \times AG = DA \times AB$,

that is $EA \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c = ab$, it will be $EA = \frac{ab}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c}$. And

therefore $EG = \frac{ab}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab} + \frac{1}{2}c$; that is, reducing to a

common denominator, $EG = \frac{-\frac{1}{2}cc + c\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}cc + ab} - \frac{1}{2}c}$. And actually making the

division, it will be at last $EG = c$, as it ought to be.

The same calculus will serve for the construction of the negative value, only making use of the rectangle HAR instead of DAB.

Also,

Also, the solution of the problem may thus be demonstrated synthetically.

Because it is $OAq = RAD$, and $EAG = DAB$, and, by construction, $AR = AB$, $AQ = AG$, $QP = BC$, $MO = MQ$, it will be $AOq + OMq = AMq = EAG + QMq$; that is, by *Euclid*, ii. 4, $AQq + 2AQM + QMq = EAG + QMq$. And, taking away the common QMq , it will be $AQq + 2AQM = EAG$; and, by the third of the same book, $AQq + 2AQM = EGA + GAq$. But $AG = AQ$; therefore it will be $2AQM = EGA$, that is, $AQ \cdot AG :: EG \cdot 2QM$. And therefore $EG = 2QM = BC$.

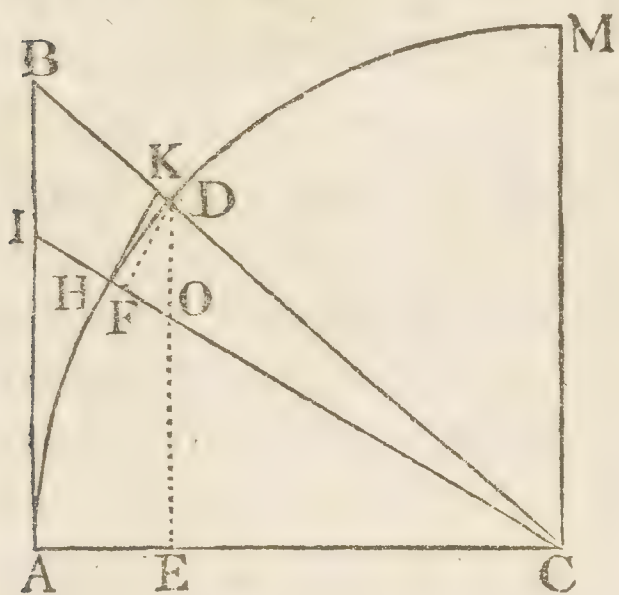
Q. E. D.

PROBLEM XIII.

108. Two arches of a circle being given, and their tangents, to find the tangent of the sum of those arches.

A trigonometrical problem, with a general solution.

Fig. 8.



Let the two given arches be AH , HD , and the tangents $AI = a$, $HK = b$, the radius $CA = r$, the tangent of the sum of the given arches $AB = x$.

It will be $CB = \sqrt{rr + xx}$, $CI = \sqrt{rr + aa}$, $CK = \sqrt{rr + bb}$. And, letting fall DE perpendicular to CA , and DF perpendicular to CH ; because of similar triangles CBA , CDE , it will be $CE =$

$$\frac{rr}{\sqrt{rr + xx}}, \quad DE = \frac{rx}{\sqrt{rr + xx}}; \text{ and also, because the}$$

triangles CAI , CEO , DFO , are similar, we shall

$$\text{have } EO = \frac{ar}{\sqrt{rr + xx}}, \quad CO = \frac{r\sqrt{rr + aa}}{\sqrt{rr + xx}}, \text{ and } DO$$

$$= \frac{b\sqrt{rr + aa}}{\sqrt{rr + bb}}. \text{ Wherefore we shall have the equation } ED = EO + OD, \text{ that}$$

$$\text{is, } \frac{ar}{\sqrt{rr + xx}} + \frac{b\sqrt{rr + aa}}{\sqrt{rr + bb}} = \frac{rx}{\sqrt{rr + xx}}, \text{ or } \frac{rx - ar}{\sqrt{rr + xx}} = \frac{b\sqrt{rr + aa}}{\sqrt{rr + bb}}; \text{ and, squaring}$$

$$\text{this to free it from the radicals, it will be } \frac{rrxx - 2arrx + aarr}{rr + xx} = \frac{bbrr + aabb}{rr + bb}.$$

Then, reducing to a common denominator, and taking away such terms as destroy one another, it will be $r^4xx - 2ar^4x - 2abbrrx + aar^4 = aabbxx + bbr^4$;

$$\text{that is, } xx - \frac{2ar^4 + 2abbrr}{r^4 - aabb} x = \frac{bbr^4 - aar^4}{r^4 - aabb}, \text{ which is an affected quadratick.}$$

Therefore, adding to each member the square of half the co-efficient of the

M 2

second

second term, that is the square of $\frac{ar^4 + ab^2r^2}{r^4 - a^2b^2}$, it will become $xx - \frac{2ar^4 + 2ab^2r^2}{r^4 - aabb}x$
 $+ \frac{aar^8 + 2aabbrr^6 + aab^4r^4}{(r^4 - aabb)^2} = \frac{b^2r^4 - a^2r^4}{r^4 - a^2b^2} + \frac{a^2r^8 + 2a^2b^2r^6 + a^2b^4r^4}{(r^4 - a^2b^2)^2}$; then extract-
 ing the root, and reducing the *homogeneum comparationis* to a common denomi-
 nator, it will be $x - \frac{ar^4 + ab^2r^2}{r^4 - a^2b^2} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{b^2r^8 + 2a^2b^2r^6 + a^4b^2r^4}{(r^4 - a^2b^2)^2}}$. But the quan-
 tity under the *vinculum* is a square, and it's root is $\frac{br^4 + aabrr}{r^4 - a^2b^2}$, or otherwise
 $-\frac{br^4 + aabrr}{r^4 - a^2b^2}$. Therefore, in the first place, taking the positive root, it will
 be $x = \frac{ar^4 + aabrr + aabrr + br^4}{r^4 - aabb}$; and, taking the negative root, it will be
 $x = \frac{ar^4 + ab^2r^2 - aabrr - br^4}{r^4 - aabb}$. Now, in the first case, both the numerator and
 the denominator are divisible by $rr + ab$, and the quotient is $\frac{arr + brr}{rr - ab}$; and,
 in the second case, the numerator and the denominator are divisible by $rr - ab$,
 and the quotient is $\frac{arr - brr}{rr + ab}$. Therefore the two values of the unknown quan-
 tity are $x = \frac{rr \times \overline{a+b}}{rr - ab}$, and $x = \frac{rr \times \overline{a-b}}{rr + ab}$. The first of these will serve
 for the tangent of the sum of the given arches, and the second for the tangent
 of their difference, as will easily be seen by solving the problem in this case.
 This value will be positive or negative, according as the arch, or it's tangent a ,
 will be greater or less than the tangent b .

This foundation being laid, it will not be difficult to go on to the general
 solution of the problem; that is, as many successive arches as you please, with
 their tangents being given, to find the tangent of the sum of all those arches;
 which may be done in the following manner.

First, let there be three arches given, and let their tangents be a, b, c . By
 the foregoing solution, $\frac{rr \times \overline{a+b}}{rr - ab}$ will be the tangent of the sum of two of
 those arches, the tangents of which are a, b . Let this tangent be called z , and
 therefore it will be $z = \frac{rr \times \overline{a+b}}{rr - ab}$. But, by the same solution, it will be
 $\frac{rr \times \overline{z+c}}{rr - zc}$, the tangent of the sum of the two arches, whose tangents are z, c ;
 and z is the tangent of the sum of the two arches, whose tangents are a, b .

Therefore $\frac{rr \times \overline{z+c}}{rr - zc}$ will be the tangent of the sum of the three arches, whose tangents are a, b, c . And in this expression, instead of z substituting it's value

$\frac{rr \times \overline{a+b}}{rr - ab}$, we shall have the tangent of the sum of the three arches expressed

by the given tangents only a, b, c , which will be $\frac{rr \times \overline{a+b+c-abc}}{rr - ab - ac - bc}$. By the

same way of arguing, we shall have the tangent of the sum of four arches, their given tangents being a, b, c, f , which will be

$\frac{rr \text{ into } arr + brr + crr + frr - abc - abf - acf - bcf}{rr \times rr - ab - ac - af - bc + bf - cf + abcf}$. Also, the tangent of the sum

of five, their given tangents being a, b, c, f, g , will be found to be

$\frac{r^4 \times \overline{a+b+c+f+g} - r^2 \times \overline{abc+abf+acf+abg+bcf+acg+bcg+bff+afg+cfg} + abcfg}{rr \times rr - ab - ac - af - ag - bc - bf - bg - cf - cg - fg + abcf + abcg + abfg + acfg + bcfg}$.

And thus for as many more arches as you please. From hence may be derived a general rule, to form the fraction which shall express the tangent of the sum of as many given arches as you please; which will be this.

To form the numerator of the fraction there must be taken the sum of all the possible products of an odd number of factors, which can be made with all the given tangents. For example, if the number of tangents be seven, take the sum of all these tangents; then the sum of all the threes that can be made, then the sum of all the fives, and lastly, the product of all the seven. These sums are to be multiplied by such a power of the radius, as each has occasion for, that they may be of a dimension greater, by unity, than the number of the given tangents. And to these sums must be prefixed the signs $+$ and $-$ alternately; that is, to the sum of all, the sign $+$; to the sum of all the threes, the sign $-$, and so on; and thus the numerator will be completed.

To form the denominator must be taken the square of the radius, then the sum of all the products of an even number of factors, which can be made by the given tangents, that is of all the twos, of all the fours, &c. This square of the radius, and the sum of all the twos, of all the fours, of all the sixes, &c. must be multiplied into such a power of the radius, as each has occasion for, that they may be of a dimension equal to the number of the given tangents. To the square of the radius is to be prefixed the sign $+$, to all the twos the sign $-$, to the fours the sign $+$, and so on alternately. And thus the denominator will be completed.

Now the rule for knowing what must be the number of all the twos possible, of all the threes, &c. in a given number of quantities, will be this following.

Write

Write down the number of quantities given, and thence continue the decreasing series of natural numbers. Under these numbers write down in order an increasing series of natural numbers, beginning from unity. Afterwards find the product of so many terms of the upper series, as is the index of the combination that is to be made. Also, there must be made the product of as many terms of the series below; and one product being divided by the other, the quotient will be the number required. So to know how many twos, threes, &c. can be made of 5 quantities, for example, write down the numbers thus :

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 5, & 4, & 3, & 2, & 1, \\ 1, & 2, & 3, & 4, & 5. \end{array}$$

The product of the two first numbers of the upper series is 20, which, divided by the product of the two first numbers of the lower series, will give 10 for the quotient. And therefore the twos will be 10. The product of the three first is 60, which, divided by 6, the product of the three first of the lower series, will give the quotient 10; and therefore the threes will be 10, &c.

From the solution of this problem we obtain, by way of corollary, the solution of another which is more simple; and that is, the tangent of an arch being given, to find the tangent of any multiple of that arch. For, in this case, it will be sufficient to make all the given tangents equal to one another, and equal to the tangent of the given arch. For example, make the tangent of the given arch $= a$, and let it be required to find the tangent of the double arch, the triple, &c. In the formula which we have already found for the tangent of the sum of two given arches, instead of the letter b we must every where put a , and we shall have a formula or expression for the double arch

$\frac{2arr}{rr - aa}$. In the formula for the tangent of the sum of three given arches, instead of b and c we must put a , and we shall have the expression of the triple arch $\frac{3arr - a^3}{rr - 3aa}$. In like manner, that for the quadruple arch will be

$\frac{4ar^4 - 4a^3rr}{r^4 - 6a^2r^2 + a^4}$. That for the quintuple arch will be $\frac{5ar^4 - 10a^3r^2 + a^5}{r^4 - 10a^2r^2 + 5a^4}$. And so of all others successively.

Whence we may form the following progression, or general canon, for the tangent of any multiple arch, according to any whole number whatever denoted by n .

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{n-1}{n} a - \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} r \frac{n-3}{r} a^3 + \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2 \cdot n-3 \cdot n-4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} r \frac{n-5}{r} a^5 - \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2 \cdot n-3 \cdot n-4 \cdot n-5 \cdot n-6}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7} r \frac{n-7}{r} a^7 \\ \hline \frac{n-1}{n} a - \frac{n \cdot n-1}{1 \cdot 2} r \frac{n-3}{r} a^2 + \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2 \cdot n-3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} r \frac{n-5}{r} a^4 - \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2 \cdot n-3 \cdot n-4 \cdot n-5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} r \frac{n-7}{r} a^6 \end{array} \quad \&c.$$

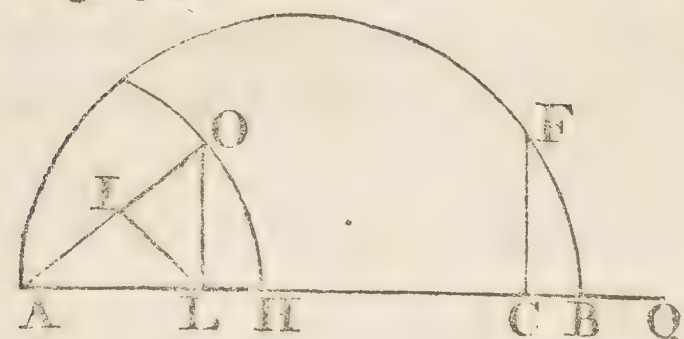
The

The tangent being found of any multiple arch, the inverse problem will be easily resolved. That is, the tangent of an arch being given, to find the tangent of any submultiple arch, according to any whole number whatever. That is to say, to divide an arch or angle into as many equal parts as we please. Wherefore let the tangent of the given arch be b , and n the number according to which we would have the submultiple arch; we must take the tangent found for the multiple arch by the number n , instead of a we must put x , and thus x will represent the tangent of the submultiple arch. This tangent of the multiple arch is therefore equal to the given tangent b , whence we shall have an equation to determine the unknown quantity x .

Therefore the tangent b being given, and the radius r , the equation for the tangent of the subtriple arch will be $x^3 - 3bxx - 3rrx + brr = 0$. That for the subquintuple arch will be $x^5 - 5bx^4 - 10rrx^3 + 10brrxx + 5r^4x - br^4 = 0$. And so of the rest.

PROBLEM XIV.

Fig. 34.



109. To find a triangle ALO, the sides of which AO, LO, AL, and the perpendicular LI, are in continued geometrical proportion.

Take one side at pleasure, or $AL = a$, and make $OL = x$. It will be, by the conditions of the problem, $AO = \frac{xx}{a}$, and $LI = \frac{aa}{x}$.

Therefore $AI = \sqrt{aa - \frac{a^4}{xx}}$, and $IO = \sqrt{xx - \frac{a^4}{xx}}$. Therefore $AI + IO = AO$, that is, $\sqrt{aa - \frac{a^4}{xx}} + \sqrt{xx - \frac{a^4}{xx}} = \frac{xx}{a}$. Or $\frac{xx}{a} - \sqrt{xx - \frac{a^4}{xx}} = \sqrt{aa - \frac{a^4}{xx}}$; and, by squaring, $\frac{x^4}{aa} - \frac{2xx}{a} \sqrt{xx - \frac{a^4}{xx}} + xx - \frac{a^4}{xx} = aa - \frac{a^4}{xx}$, that is $\frac{x^4}{aa} + xx - aa = \frac{2xx}{a} \sqrt{xx - \frac{a^4}{xx}}$. Now, by squaring again, it will be $\frac{x^8}{a^4} + \frac{2x^6}{aa} + x^4 - 2x^4 - 2aaxx + a^4 = \frac{4x^6}{aa} - 4aaxx$. And lastly, by reducing to a common denominator, and ordering the equation, it will be $x^8 - 2a^2x^6 - a^4x^4 + 2a^6x^2 + a^8 = 0$. This equation has the appearance of one of the eighth degree, but it may be observed to be a square, and therefore, extracting it's root, it will be found to be $x^4 - aaxx - a^4 = 0$. This is an affected

affected quadratich; therefore, transposing $-a^4$, and adding $\frac{1}{4}a^4$ to both sides, and extracting the root by the common rule for affected quadratics, it will be $xx - \frac{1}{2}aa = \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5a^4}$, that is, $xx = \frac{1}{2}aa \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5a^4}$, and finally, $x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{aa \pm \sqrt{5a^4}}{2}}$.

Therefore the unknown quantity will have four values; but it may be observed, that the quantity $\sqrt{5a^4}$ is greater than aa , and therefore, if we take the radical $\sqrt{5a^4}$ negative, that is $-\sqrt{5a^4}$, then the quantity under the common radical *vinculum* will be negative; whence the value of x will be imaginary, and therefore two values will be imaginary, that is $x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{aa - \sqrt{5a^4}}{2}}$. And two will be real, that is $x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{aa + \sqrt{5a^4}}{2}}$, both equal, but one positive and the other negative.

On the indefinite line AQ take $AL = a$, $LC = a\sqrt{5}$, and $CB = \frac{1}{2}a$. Then on the diameter AB describe the semicircle AFB , and erect the perpendicular CF . By the property of the circle, it will be $CF = \sqrt{\frac{aa + aa\sqrt{5}}{2}} = x$.

Bisect AC in H , and with centre A , radius $AH = \frac{xx}{a} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}a$, describe the arch HO . From the point L draw $LO = CF$, and terminated at the arch HO . And if AO be drawn, and the perpendicular LI , then ALO will be the triangle required. For, because it is $AL = a$, $LO = x = \sqrt{\frac{aa + aa\sqrt{5}}{2}}$,

$AO = AH = \frac{xx}{a} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}a$; it will be $AO \cdot LO :: LO \cdot LA$. But the two squares of AL and LO taken together, that is $aa + \frac{aa + aa\sqrt{5}}{2}$, are equal to the square of AO , that is $\frac{6aa + 2a\sqrt{5}aa}{4}$. Wherefore the angle ALO is a

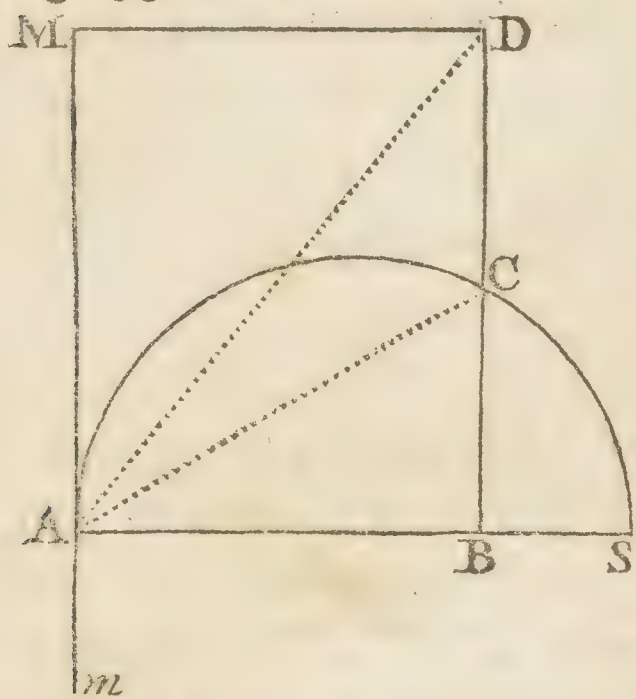
right angle, and thence it will be $AO \cdot LO :: AL \cdot LI$. But, because it is also $AO \cdot LO :: LO \cdot LA$, it will be likewise $LO \cdot LA :: LA \cdot LI$. The other negative value, which is equal to the positive, would serve for the construction that may be made under the line AB .

PROBLEM XV.

110. To divide a given angle into three equal parts.

The Problem proposed contains three cases; one is when the given angle is a right angle; another when it is obtuse; and the third when it is acute. The tri-
section of
an angle.

Fig. 35.



In the first, let the given angle MAB be a right angle, which is supposed to be divided into three equal parts by the right lines AC, AD. Make $AB = a$, and at B raise the perpendicular BC, which produced shall meet the line AD in D; and from the point D let DM be drawn parallel to AB. Then making $BC = x$, it will be $AC = \sqrt{aa + xx}$. But, because the angle CAD must be equal to the angle DAM, and because of the parallels AM, BD, the angle DAM is equal to the angle ADC; the angles CDA, CAD, will be equal. Wherefore $CD = CA = \sqrt{aa + xx}$,

whence $BD = x + \sqrt{aa + xx}$. But besides, the two angles BAC, CAD, or CDA, ought also to be equal, and therefore in the two triangles BDA, CAB, the angle CAB will be equal to the angle BDA, and the right angle at B is common. Therefore also the third $BCA = BAD$, and consequently the triangles are similar. Whence we shall have $AB \cdot BC :: BD \cdot AB$; that is, $a \cdot x :: x + \sqrt{aa + xx} \cdot a$; and thence the equation $aa = xx + x\sqrt{aa + xx}$; and transposing the term xx , and squaring, it will be $aaxx + x^4 = a^4 - 2aaxx + x^4$, and finally, $3aaxx = a^4$, or $x = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$.

Produce AB to S, so that it may be $BS = \frac{1}{3}AB = \frac{1}{3}a$. On the diameter AS let the semicircle ACS be described; the ordinate BC will be $= \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} = x$. Then draw AC to the point C, and take $CD = AC$, drawing AD. The given angle will be then divided into three equal parts. For, whereas it is $BC = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$, it will be $AC = \sqrt{\frac{4}{3}aa} = CD$, and $AD = \sqrt{ABq + BDq} =$

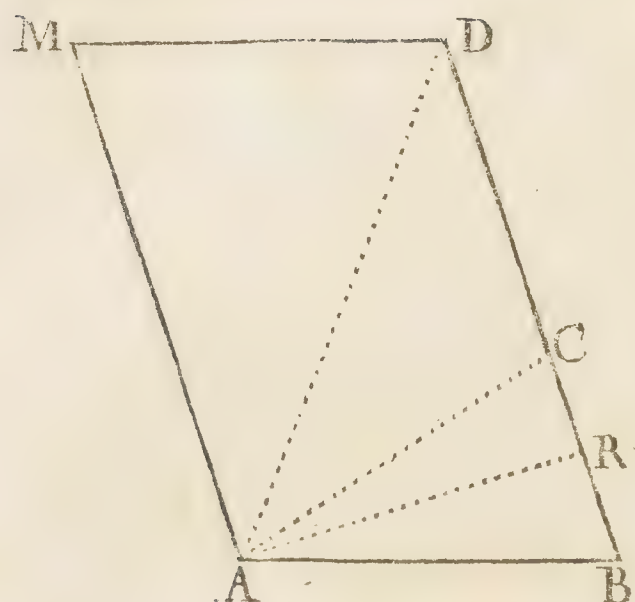
$\sqrt{aa + \frac{5}{3}aa + 2a\sqrt{\frac{4aa}{9}}} = 2a$. Therefore $AD \cdot AB :: 2a \cdot a :: 2 \cdot 1$, and

$DC \cdot CB :: \sqrt{\frac{4}{3}aa} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} :: 2 \cdot 1$; that is, in the very same ratio as AD to AB. Wherefore, by *Euclid*, vi. 3, the angle $BAC = CAD$; and, because of $CD = CA$, it will be also the angle $CAD = CDA = DAM$. The negative value, which is equal to the positive, would serve for the division of the angle mAB.

N

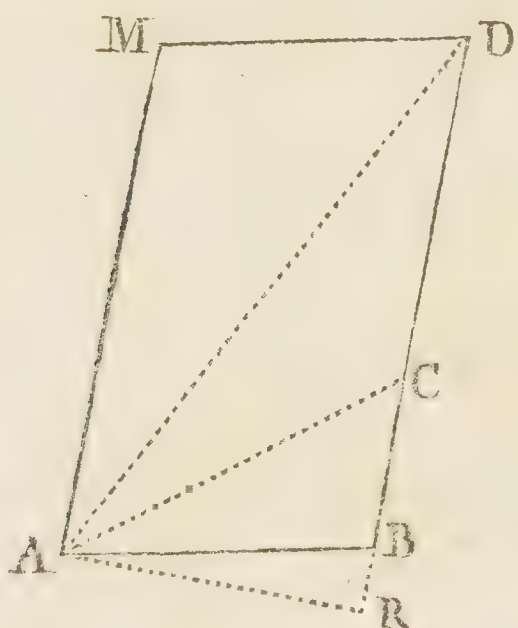
Let

Fig. 36.



$x\sqrt{aa - 2bx + xx}$. Then taking away the asymmetry, it is $2bx^3 - 3aaxx + a^4 = 0$, which is a solid equation, or of the third degree, which at present I shall leave unresolved.

Fig. 37.



Lastly, let the angle BAM be acute; the perpendicular from the point A to DB produced will fall under the point B in R, and therefore it will be $RC = b + x$, and $AC = \sqrt{aa + 2bx + xx}$. Wherefore, repeating the same argumentation as in the foregoing case, we shall have the equation $2bx^3 + 3aaxx - a^4 = 0$, which differs from the foregoing only in the signs.

S E C T. III.

The Construction of Loci, or Geometrical Places, not exceeding the second Degree.

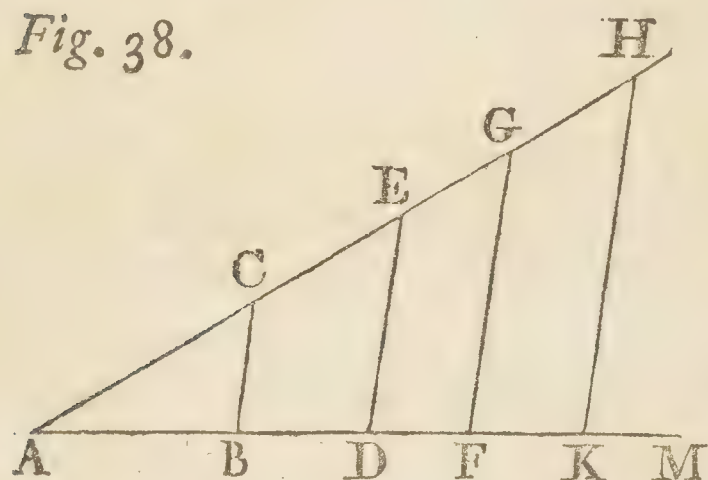
What are variable quantities; and what is the law by which they vary.

III. What are Indeterminate Problems, and how they require two unknown quantities, has been already explained at § 84. Now, because the value of one of the unknown quantities may be varied an infinite number of ways, so, in like manner, the value of the other may be as often varied; whence they are called the *Variable Quantities* of the equation or problem, and their relation, or law which they observe in their variations, is expressed by an equation. Thus the equation

equation $bx = ay$ informs us, that, varying x as you please, y must also be varied, but with this condition, that x must always have to y the constant ratio of a to b . Thus the equation $ab = xy$ expresses such a law, that the product of the two unknown quantities must always be constant, and equal to the product of a into b . The equation $ax = yy$ implies, that the square of y must always be equal to the rectangle of x into a constant line a ; and so of all other equations.

112. One of the two unknown quantities, suppose x for example, must have its origin from a fixed point, and must be taken upon an indefinite right line. Then, if a determinate value be assigned to this, from the extremity is to be raised another right line in the given angle of the problem, which line is to be taken of such a length as the other unknown line y ought to have, by the nature of the equation, relatively to the assigned or assumed value of x . And this ought to be repeated for every different value that x can assume. The line which shall pass through the extremities of all the y 's is called the *Locus* of the equation. The unknown line, which is taken from the fixed point on the indefinite right line, is called the *Absciss*; and the other, at the given angle to it, is called the *Ordinate*: and both indifferently are called the *Co-ordinates* of the equation.

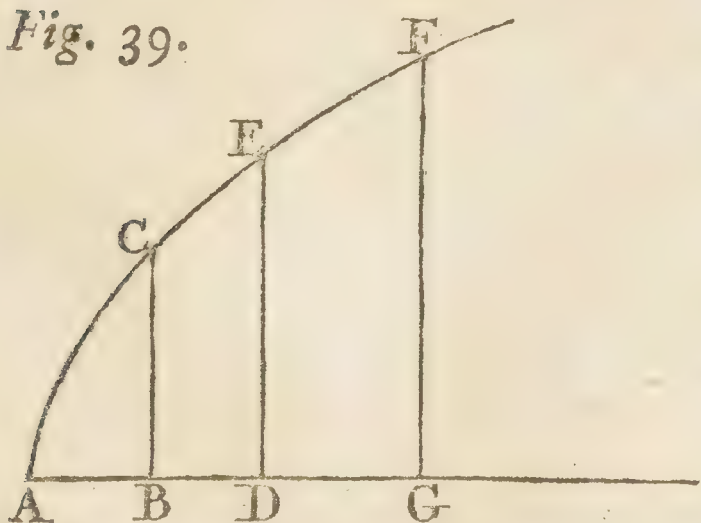
Fig. 38.



Now, for example, as to the equation $bx = ay$; upon the indefinite line AM take $AB = a$, and in any angle draw $BC = b$. Here, if we take $x = AD$, the fourth proportional will be parallel to BC , that is $DE = y$. And taking $x = AF$, then it will be $FG = y$. Also, taking $x = AK$, it will be $KH = y$. And thus for infinite others. And the line in which all these infinite points are found, C, E,

G, H, &c. which are determined in this manner, will be the *locus* of the equation $bx = ay$, and which will be a right line.

Fig. 39.



In the same manner, as to the equation $ax = yy$, if we take $x = AB$, and $BC = \sqrt{ax}$, that is, a mean proportional between AB and the given line a , it will be $BC = y$. And taking $x = AD$, and DE a mean proportional between AD and a , it will be $DE = y$. Taking $x = AG$, and GF a mean proportional between AG and a , it will be $GF = y$. And so of all others. Now the points C, E, F, and infinite others determined in the same manner,

will form the line ACEF, which is the *locus* of the equation $ax = yy$. And the same is to be understood of all other equations.

Different equations require different *loci*, and *vice versa*.

113. From the several different laws expressed by the given equations, or from the different relations that the two variables or unknown quantities may have to each other, other *loci* or lines will arise, which will differ both in kind and in degree. So it is easy to perceive, that the *locus* of the equation $bx = ay$ will be a right line, as observed before; for y to x having a constant ratio, because it is $y = \frac{bx}{a}$; any line ED (Fig. 38.) will be to AD, as any other FG to AF; therefore the triangles AED, AGF, will be similar. This may be verified also by any other point H, &c. So that it must necessarily follow, that these points will all be in the same right line. But the equation $ax = yy$ requires, not that the lines BC, DE, &c. (Fig. 39.) but that their squares, may have a constant ratio to the corresponding lines AB, AD, &c. Whence it is, that the points C, E, F, &c. will not be in one right line, but in a certain curve line, called a *Parabola*. Thus a curve of a different kind from this would be the *locus* of the equation $xy = ab$; and a curve of a different kind and degree would be the *locus* of this other equation $a^3 - x^3 = y^3$. And the like of infinite others.

When the *locus* will be a right line.

114. As often as the equation shall not contain, in any term, either the square, or some higher power, of one of the unknown quantities, or the product of the same, the *locus* will always be a right line.

When the *locus* is a conic section.

115. And when, in the equation, there is found the square of one, or of the other, or of both the variable quantities, or their rectangle, either this or that as it may happen; and no term shall include a greater power than the square of those variable quantities, or a product above the rectangle; that is, in no term the variable quantities, either alone or multiplied together, exceed the second dimension; the *locus* will always be one of the Conic Sections of *Apollonius*. These assertions cannot be better demonstrated than by actually constructing all the several equations of this nature.

Loci or curves distinguished into orders.

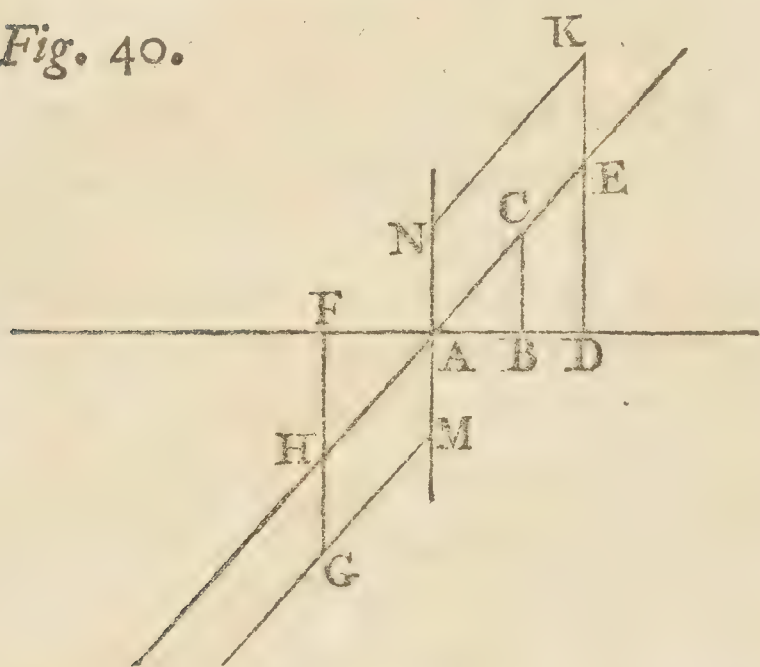
116. Equations which include the unknown quantities of one dimension only, that is, the *loci* to a right line, are called *Loci* or Lines of the First Order. Those which, either alone or multiplied together, include them of two dimensions, that is, *loci* to the conic sections, are called *Loci* or Lines of the Second Order, and therefore Curves of the First Kind. Those equations in which the variables ascend to three dimensions, are called *Loci* or Lines of the Third Order, and therefore Curves of the Second Kind. And so on successively.

The *loci* to a right line constructed, in six cases.

117. Now, as to the *loci* to a right line, they are all comprehended under these six equations following: $y = \frac{ax}{b}$, $y = -\frac{ax}{b}$, $y = \frac{ax}{b} + c$, $y =$

$-\frac{ax}{b} - c$, $y = \frac{ax}{b} - c$, and $y = -\frac{ax}{b} + c$. For, by multiplication and division, we may always reduce y to be free from fractions and co-efficients. By $\frac{a}{b}$ is to be understood the aggregate of all the known quantities which multiply x , and by c the aggregate of all the quantities which form the given or constant term.

Fig. 40.

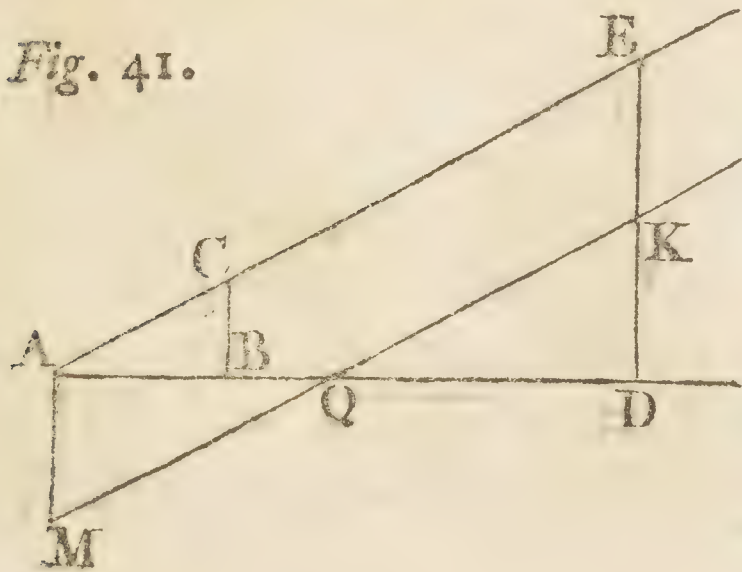


To construct the two first, upon AD produced both ways indefinitely, take $AB = AF = b$ on each side, and draw $BC = a$, making the angle ABC such as the two variables of the problem ought to make. Through the points A, C , draw an indefinite right line HE ; this will be the *locus* of the two equations $y = \frac{ax}{b}$, and $y = -\frac{ax}{b}$. For, taking any line $AD = x$, and drawing DE parallel to BC , it will be $DE = \frac{ax}{b} = y$.

And taking $AF = -x$, and drawing FH parallel to BC , it will be $FH = -\frac{ax}{b} = y$.

The third and fourth are thus constructed. Take $AN = AM = c$, and parallel to BC ; and draw NK, MG , indefinitely, and parallel to HE . NK will be the *locus* of the equation $y = \frac{ax}{b} + c$; and MG the *locus* of the equation $y = -\frac{ax}{b} - c$. For, taking $AD = x$, it will be $DE = \frac{ax}{b}$. But it is $EK = AN = c$, making DK parallel to BC . Then $DK = \frac{ax}{b} + c = y$. And taking $AF = -x$, and drawing FG parallel to BC , it will be $FG = -\frac{ax}{b} - c = y$.

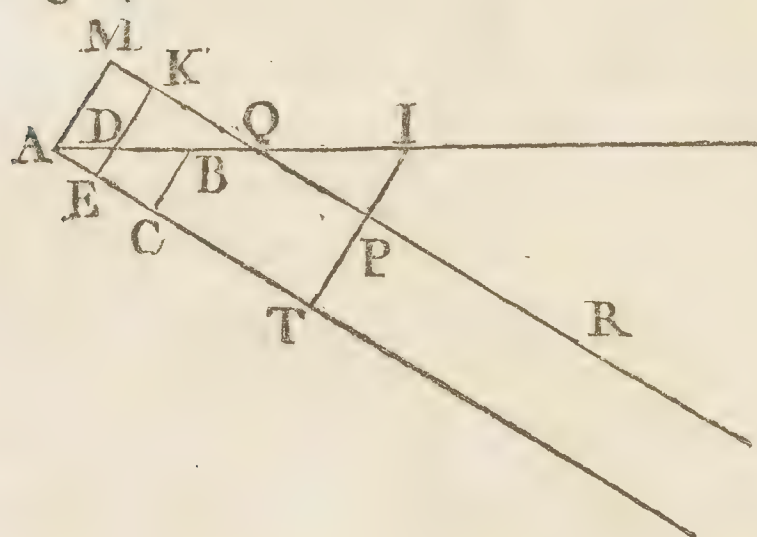
Fig. 41.



As to the fifth, construct the same triangle ABC , and produce the lines AE, AD , indefinitely; draw $AM = c$, and parallel to BC . Then from the point M draw the indefinite line MK parallel to AE , which will meet the right line AD in Q . Then will QK be the *locus* of the equation $y = \frac{ax}{b} - c$. For, taking any line $AD = x$, and drawing DE parallel

parallel to BC, it will be $DE = \frac{ax}{b}$. But $KE = AM = c$; therefore $DK = \frac{ax}{b} - c = y$. The portion QM will serve when $\frac{ax}{b}$ is less than c , that is, when x is taken less than AQ, or less than $\frac{bc}{a}$; for, in this case, y will be negative, and therefore ought to be taken below AD, that is, the contrary way from DK.

Fig. 42.



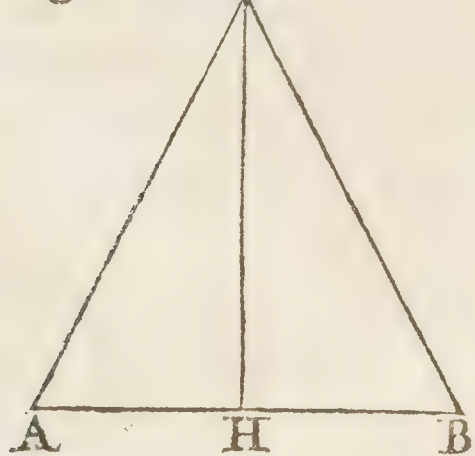
For the last formula, make $AB = b$, $BC = a$, and the angle ABC equal to the supplement of the angle of the variables. Make $AM = c$, parallel to BC, and draw MQK parallel to AC, cutting AB produced in Q. Then will MQK be the *locus* of the equation $y = c - \frac{ax}{b}$. For, taking any how $AD = x$, and drawing DE parallel to BC, it will be $DE = \frac{ax}{b}$. But, producing

ED to K, it will be $EK = AM = c$, and therefore $DK = c - \frac{ax}{b} = y$. Now, if x be taken greater than AQ, for instance = AI, it will be $IT = \frac{ax}{b}$, and therefore $c - \frac{ax}{b}$ is a negative quantity = $y = IP$; taken directly contrary to DK, and the indefinite line MR is the *locus* of the proposed equation in both cases.

The *locus* when one of the variables vanishes.

118. It may sometimes happen, that, in the solution of a problem the *locus* of which is a right line, either one or the other of the two variables will disappear, and will not enter into the equation. In such cases, the *locus* will be to the perpendicular, or to a parallel to the given right line upon which the abscissas are taken, according as either the ordinate or abscissa vanishes. Here is an example or two of this.

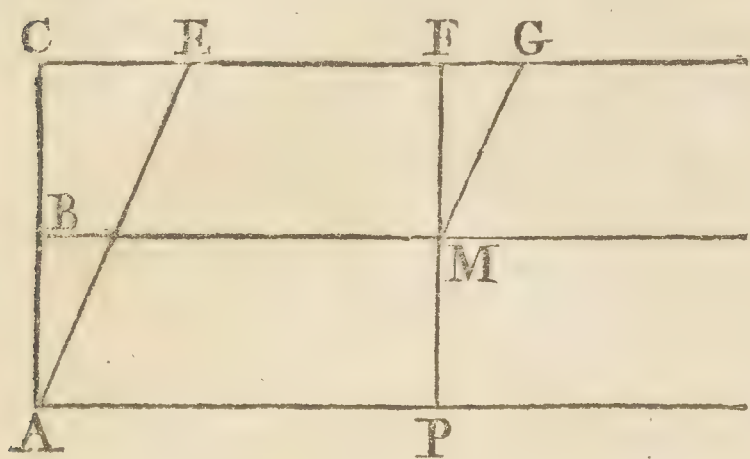
Fig. 43. M



The right line AB being given, let it be proposed to find the *locus* of the points M out of this, such that, drawing the right lines MA, MB, to the extremities of AB, it may always be $MA = MB$. Taking any line $AH = x$, draw $HM = y$, and make $AB = a$. It will be $HB = a - x$, $AM = \sqrt{xx + yy}$, and $BM = \sqrt{aa - 2ax + xx + yy}$; and thence the equation $\sqrt{xx + yy} =$

$= \sqrt{aa - 2ax + xx + yy}$, and squaring, $xx + yy = aa - 2ax + xx + yy$, that is, $x = \frac{1}{2}a$; where y disappears, and x remains determined. This shows us, that, taking $x = AH$, which is half AB , and from the point H raising an indefinite perpendicular, every one of it's points will satisfy the question, and therefore this will be the *locus* required.

Fig. 44.



Let the parallels CG, AP , be given in position, and between them let it be required to find the *locus* of all the points M such, that, drawing MP perpendicular to AP , and MG making the angle MGC equal to a given angle AEC ; it may always be MP to MG in the constant ratio of a to b . Make the distance $AC = c$, $AP = x$, $PM = y$, and producing PM to F , it will be $FM = c - y$. Now, because the angle AEC is given, and ACE is

a right angle, and the side AC is given, the side AE will also be known, which may be called f . Now, because of the similar triangles ACE, FMG , it will be

$AC . AE :: MF . MG$; that is, $c . f :: c - y . MG = \frac{cf - fy}{c}$. But besides,

it ought to be $PM . MG :: a . b$. Then it will be $y . \frac{cf - fy}{c} :: a . b$, and

therefore $bcy = acf - afy$, or $y = \frac{acf}{bc + af}$. So that here is an equation, in

which the unknown quantity x does not enter at all. Therefore, taking x as

you please, y will always be constant, and equal to $\frac{acf}{bc + af}$; and therefore,

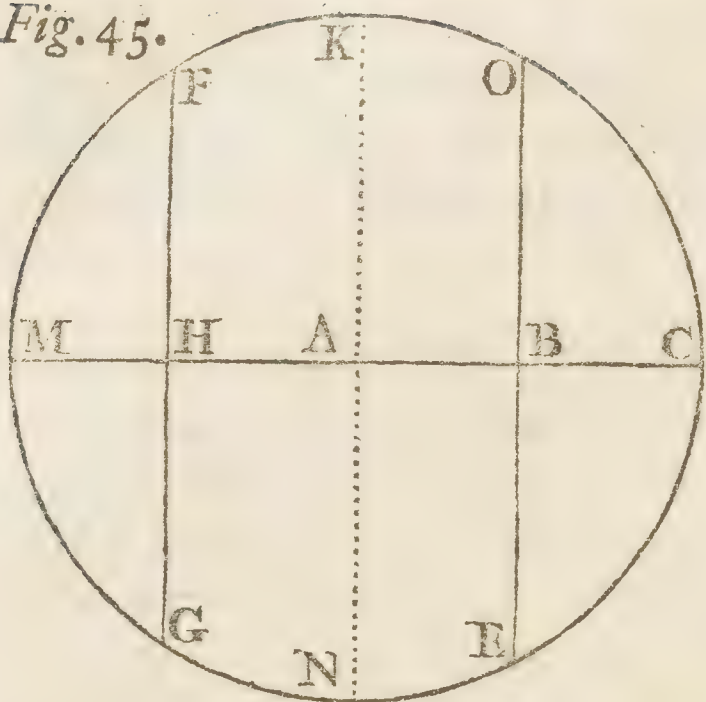
drawing the indefinite line BM parallel to AP , and as far distant from it as

the quantity $\frac{acf}{bc + af}$, this line will be the *locus* required.

119. Having thus explained the construction of the *Loci* to a Right Line, I come now to the construction of Equations of the Second Degree, or of the *Loci* to the Conic Sections. And here I must suppose the learner to be so well instructed in the chief geometrical properties of these sections of the cone, as to form from thence the first and more simple equations of these curves; to which simple equations the more compounded ones may be reduced and referred, by the methods now to be explained.

And, in the first place, it must be known, that in the circle any ordinate is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter; that is, it's square is equal to the rectangle of the said segments. Therefore, in the circle $MKCN$,
if

Fig. 45.



if you make the radius $AC = a$, and from the centre A any absciss whatever $AB = x$, and the perpendicular ordinate $BD = y$, it will be $MB = a + x$, $BC = a - x$, and therefore $MB \times BC = aa - xx$; then it will be $yy = aa - xx$, an equation to the circle, in respect of the quadrant KC . But, because the same property may be verified also, taking BE for the ordinate, that is the negative ordinate $-y$, and as well the square of $-y$ as of y is yy ; therefore the same equation belongs also to the quadrant CN . And now, if we take the abscisses negative, as $AH = -x$, and the ordinates $HF = y$, $HG = -y$, their square yy will, in both cases, be equal to the rectangle $MH \times HC$. But when it is $AH = -x$, it will be $CH = CA + AH = a - x$; and $MH = AM - AH = a + x$ by the rules of Addition and Subtraction. And therefore the rectangle $MH \times HC$ will be still $aa - xx$. So that $yy = aa - xx$ is the most simple equation that belongs to the whole circle with radius a , taking the abscisses from the centre.

If the abscisses should be taken, not from the centre A , but from M the extremity of the diameter, making any one of them MH or MB equal to x , it will be HC or $BC = 2a - x$, and the rectangle of the segments will be equal to $2ax - xx$. But the square of the ordinate, as well positive as negative, is yy , so that it will be $yy = 2ax - xx$; the most simple equation of the same circle, taking the abscisses not from the centre, but from the extremity of the diameter.

By the quantity or magnitude a , which denotes the radius, is meant any given quantity whatever, whether simple or compound, integer or fraction, rational or furd; so that $yy = aa - bb - xx$ will be a circle with radius $= \sqrt{aa - bb}$; $yy = \frac{aab}{m} - xx$ will be a circle with radius $= \sqrt{\frac{aab}{m}}$; $yy = a\sqrt{ab} - xx$ will be a circle with radius $= \sqrt{a\sqrt{ab}}$. Thus $yy = 2ax - bx - xx$ will be a circle with diameter $= 2a - b$, or with radius $= \frac{2a - b}{2}$; $yy = \frac{aax + abx}{b} - xx$ will be a circle with diameter $= \frac{aa + ab}{b}$; $yy = x\sqrt{ab} - xx$ will be a circle with diameter $= \sqrt{ab}$. And so of others.

Here it is plain, that, in the equation $yy = aa - bb - xx$, and in all others like it, if the quantity b should be greater than a ; then $aa - bb$ being a negative quantity, the circle would become imaginary. For then the ordinate

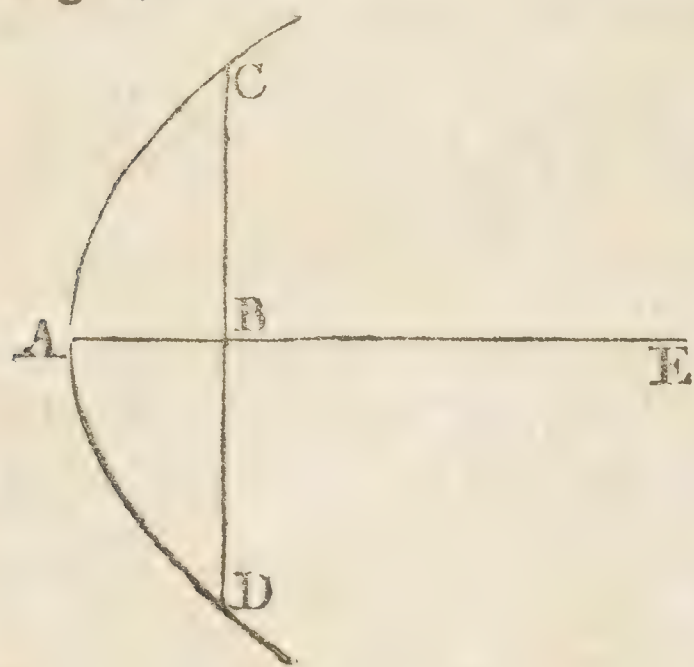
$y = \sqrt{aa - bb - xx}$ being equal to the square-root of a negative quantity, it would be therefore imaginary.

For the same reason, in the equation $yy = 2ax - xx$, the absciss x cannot be taken negative; for, taking x negative, the term $2ax$ would be negative, and therefore the equation $yy = -2ax - xx$, that is $y = \sqrt{-2ax - xx}$, would be an imaginary quantity.

120. The primary property of the *Apollonian Parabola* is this, that the square of any ordinate whatever is equal to the rectangle of the parameter into the absciss; taken on the axis if the angle of the co-ordinates be a right angle, or on a diameter if that angle be oblique. Then, making the parameter $= a$, any absciss $AB = x$, the corresponding positive ordinate $BC = y$, and the negative $BD = -y$; then yy will be the square as well of BC as of BD , and ax will be the rectangle of the parameter into AB . Wherefore $yy = ax$ is the most simple equation which belongs to the parabola with the parameter a . And here it is plain, that the absciss x cannot be taken negative, because of the avoiding imaginary quantities. And here also, by the quantity a , which expresses the parameter, is to be understood any given quantity, into which the

The simplest loci to the parabola constructed.

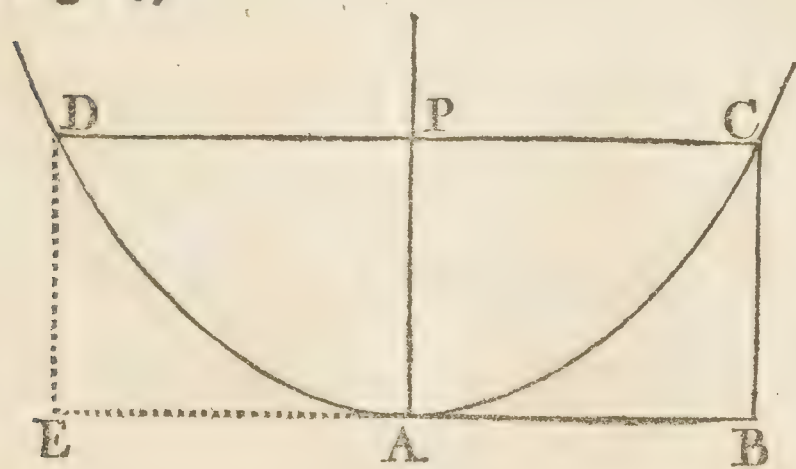
Fig. 46.



absciss x is multiplied; so that $\frac{aax \pm bbx}{c} = yy$

will be a parabola, the parameter of which is $= \frac{aa \pm bb}{c}$. And $x\sqrt{ab} = yy$ will be a parabola, the parameter of which is \sqrt{ab} . And the like of all others.

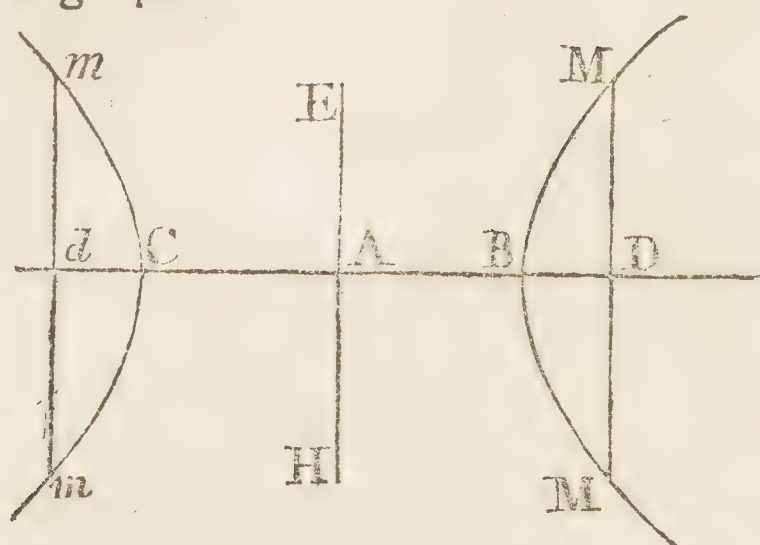
Fig. 47.



If the parabola should be differently placed, as in Fig. 47, and on the same line AB , from the given point A , we should take the absciss, or x ; the equation would be $xx = ay$, in which we may take the absciss either positive or negative, but the ordinates must always be positive.

The simplest
loci to the
hyperbola
constructed.

Fig. 48.



121. Let the opposite hyperbolas be referred to their axis, or to a diameter, according as the angle of the co-ordinates is either right or oblique; and let CB be the axis, or the transverse diameter, and HE the conjugate. By the known property of the hyperbola, taking D any point whatever, and drawing DM parallel to HE, the rectangle $CD \times DB$ must be to the square of DM, as the square of CB is to the square of HE. Then, making $CB = 2a$, $HE = 2b$,

and from the centre A taking any line $AD = x$, DM positive $= y$, DM negative $= -y$, it will be $CD = a + x$, $BD = x - a$, and therefore, by the

said property, $xx - aa : yy :: 4aa : 4bb$, that is, $xx - aa = \frac{aayy}{bb}$. And,

taking Ad negative $= -x$, and the ordinates as before, it will be $Bd = -x + a$, $Cd = -x - a$, and the rectangle $Bd \times dC = xx - aa$.

Whence, in the same manner, we shall have $\frac{aayy}{bb} = xx - aa$; the most simple

equation expressing the two entire opposite hyperbolas referred to their axes or diameters, taking the abscissas from the centre. And, if we shall take the abscissas from the vertex C, we shall have the analogy (by the said property)

$x \times \overline{x - 2a} : yy :: 4aa : 4bb$; that is, the equation $-2ax + xx = \frac{aayy}{bb}$.

And lastly, taking the abscissas from the vertex B, we shall have $x \times \overline{2a + x} :$

$yy :: 4aa : 4bb$; and therefore the equation $2ax + xx = \frac{aayy}{bb}$.

It is also a primary property of the opposite hyperbolas, that the same rectangle $CD \times DB$, taking the abscissas positive, and $Bd \times dC$, taking the abscissas negative, is to the square of the ordinate, whether positive or negative, as the axis or transverse diameter is to the parameter. Making, therefore, the parameter $= p$, and other things as before, it will be $xx - aa : yy :: 2a : p$;

that is, $\frac{2aayy}{p} = xx - aa$; the most simple equation expressing the two opposite hyperbolas as referred to a parameter, and taking the abscissas from the centre.

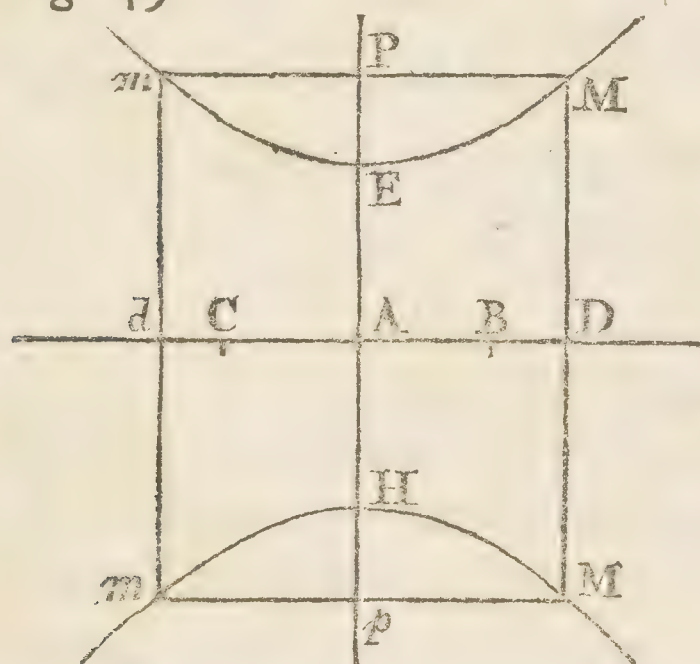
Now, taking the abscissas from the vertex C, the equation will be $\frac{2aayy}{p} = xx - 2ax$; and lastly, taking the abscissas from the vertex B, the equation will be

$2ax + xx = \frac{2aayy}{p}$.

If

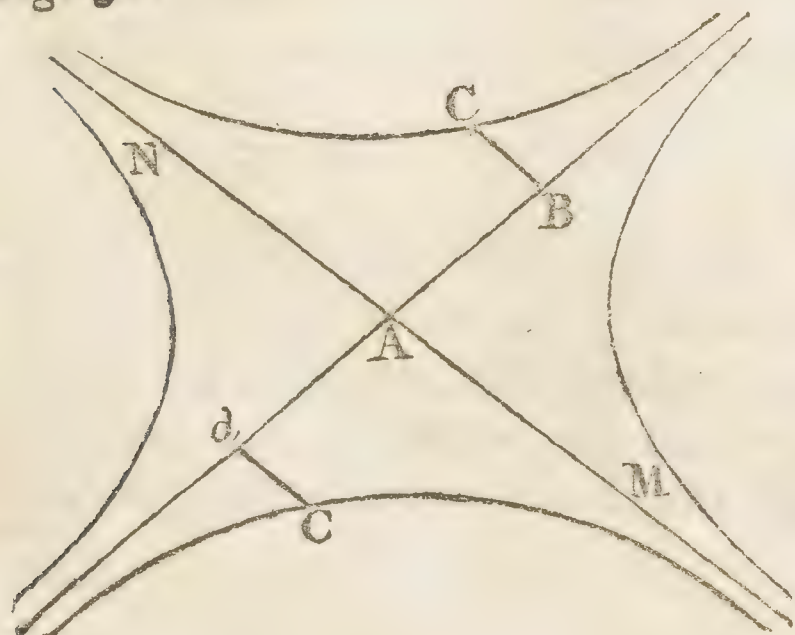
If the hyperbolas be equilateral, because, in this case, the two axes or diameters are equal to each other, and equal to the parameter, each equation will become $yy = xx - aa$, taking the absciss from the centre; or $yy = 2ax + xx$, taking the absciss from the vertex B; or $yy = -2ax + xx$, taking the absciss from the vertex C. By the quantity aa is to be understood any plane however complicated, as also by the quantity bb . And by $2a$, as also by p , is understood any line whatever. So that, in the equation $\frac{aa + ff \times yy}{b \sqrt{ab}} = xx - aa - ff$, we shall have $\sqrt{aa + ff}$ for the femiaxis, or transverse femidiameter, and $2\sqrt{aa + ff}$ will be the whole axis or diameter. As also, $\sqrt{b \sqrt{ab}}$ is the femiaxis or femidiameter conjugate, and $2\sqrt{b \sqrt{ab}}$ is the whole. In the equation $\frac{a^3 yy}{bb c} = xx - \frac{a^3}{c}$, it will be $\sqrt{\frac{a^3}{c}}$, the femiaxis or transverse femidiameter, and b the conjugate. In the equation $xx - bx = \frac{byy}{c + m}$, it will be b the femiaxis or transverse femidiameter, and $c + m$ the parameter. In the equation $\frac{2yy \sqrt{aa - bb}}{a - b} = xx - aa + bb$, it will be $2\sqrt{aa - bb}$ the axis or transverse diameter, and $a - b$ the parameter. And so on.

Fig. 49.



If the opposite hyperbolas shall be differently situated, as in Fig. 49, and upon the same diameter CB equal to $2a$, produced, if you would have the x 's positive, and negative from the centre A, (it being $HE = 2b$,) the equation would be $yy - bb = \frac{bbxx}{aa}$.

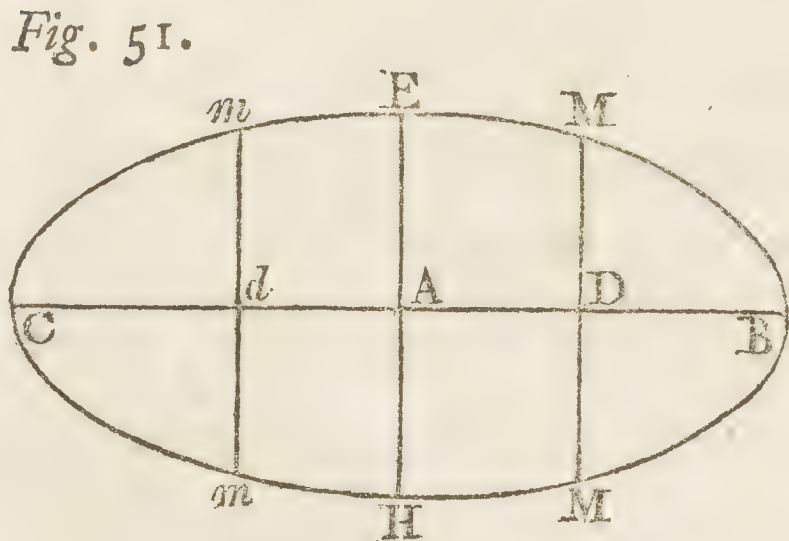
Fig. 50.



122. In the hyperbola between the The simplest
asymptotes, the rectangle of any line AB *loci* of the
taken on the asymptote dB , into the ordi- hyperbola
nate BC parallel to the asymptote MN, or between it's
Ad \times dC , is always constant, that is, equal asymptotes
to a known rectangle. Therefore, making constructed.
AB = x , BC = y , and the known rect-
angle = ab , it will be $xy = ab$; and,
taking Ad negative = $-x$, and dC ne-
gative = $-y$, the rectangle Ad \times dC shall
O 2 be

be also xy ; and therefore $xy = ab$ is the most simple equation belonging to the opposite hyperbolas between the asymptotes. It is plain, that the equation $-xy = ab$, or $xy = -ab$, will serve for the opposite hyperbolas in the angles BAM, bAN, one of the co-ordinates being always positive, and the other negative, and therefore the product is negative.

The simplest
loci to the
ellipsis con-
structed.



123. In the ellipsis CEBH, taking from the centre A any line AD upon the axis or transverse diameter CB, and drawing DM parallel to the axis or conjugate diameter EH; by the known property of the ellipsis, the rectangle $CD \times DB$ must be to the square of DM, as the square of the axis or transverse diameter CB is to the square of the conjugate HE. Therefore, making $CB = 2a$, $HE = 2b$, and from the centre A

taking any line $AD = x$, and making DM positive $= y$, DM negative $= -y$; it will be $CD = a + x$, $DB = a - x$, and therefore $aa - xx \cdot yy :: 4aa \cdot 4bb$;

that is, $\frac{aayy}{bb} = aa - xx$. And taking Ad negative $= -x$, and the ordinates as before, it will be $Bd = BA + Ad = a - x$, $dC = AC - Ad = a + x$, and therefore the rectangle $Bd \times dC$ shall be also $= aa - xx$. Whence, in

the same manner, we shall have $aa - xx = \frac{aayy}{bb}$, the most simple equation to the ellipsis, taking the abscissas from the centre. And if we should take the abscissas from the vertex C, we should have the analogy $2ax - xx \cdot yy :: 4aa \cdot 4bb$; and therefore the equation $\frac{aayy}{bb} = 2ax - xx$.

It is also a known property of the ellipsis, that the same rectangles are to the squares of the correspondent ordinates, as the axis or transverse diameter is to the parameter. Therefore, calling this parameter p , and every thing continuing as before, it will be $aa - xx \cdot yy :: 2a \cdot p$. Therefore it is $\frac{2aayy}{p} = aa - xx$, the most simple equation of the ellipsis referred to its parameter, taking the abscissas from the centre. And, taking the abscissas from the vertex C, the equation of the ellipsis referred to its parameter will be $\frac{2aayy}{p} = 2ax - xx$.

If the two axes shall be equal to each other, in which case they are also equal to the parameter, both of the equations will become $yy = aa - xx$, taking the abscissas from the centre; and $2ax - xx = yy$, taking the abscissas from the point C. But, if we confine it to an axis in which the angle of the co-ordinates is a right angle, the ellipsis will degenerate into a circle with radius $= a$.

The observation made in the hyperbola, concerning the given quantities aa , bb , $2a$, p , in respect to the diameters and parameter, is to be understood equally of the ellipsis, to save needless repetitions.

124. Now, in equations belonging to the hyperbola and the ellipsis, as referred to the axis or diameters, taking the absciss from the centre; as

In these *loci* the diameters may be found, if not given.

$$\frac{aayy}{bb} = xx - aa, \quad \frac{aayy}{bb} = aa - xx,$$

the square-root of the constant term, or of aa , will always be the transverse femiaxis or semidiameter. And if the co-efficient of the square of the ordinate be the same constant term divided by any given quantity, the root of this divisor is always the conjugate femiaxis or semidiameter, that is, the root of bb . But if this co-efficient be not such, or do not contain the constant term after this manner, then the femiaxis or conjugate semidiameter will be different. Thus,

for example, in the equation $\frac{ffyy}{bb} = xx - aa$, the femiaxis, or half the trans-

verse diameter, is indeed always a , but b is not the conjugate. To find this we must make an analogy: As the numerator of the co-efficient of the square of the ordinate is to its denominator, so is the constant term to a fourth, the root of which will be the femiaxis or semidiameter required. Then, in equations to the ellipsis or hyperbola referred to the axis or diameter, taking the absciss

from the vertex, as in $\frac{aayy}{bb} = 2ax - xx$, $\frac{aayy}{bb} = xx - 2ax$, $\frac{aayy}{bb} = xx + 2ax$,

the transverse femiaxis or semidiameter shall be half of that quantity, which multiplies the unknown quantity in its first dimension, and the conjugate as before. Observing, that when the co-efficient of the square of the ordinate is not the square of the axis or transverse diameter thus found, the analogy for the femiaxis or conjugate semidiameter will be thus: As the numerator of the co-efficient of the square of the ordinate is to the denominator, so the square of half the quantity that multiplies the unknown quantity of the first dimension, is to a fourth; and the square-root of this fourth proportional shall be the conjugate femiaxis or semidiameter.

Therefore, in the equation to the hyperbola $\frac{ffyy}{bb} = xx - aa$, the transverse femiaxis or semidiameter will be $= a$, and the conjugate $= \frac{ab}{f}$. And since,

by the property of the curve, it ought to be: As the rectangle of the sum into the difference, (of the transverse femiaxis or semidiameter and the absciss,) is to the square of the ordinate, so is the square of the axis or transverse diameter

to the square of the conjugate; it will be $xx - aa . yy :: 4aa . \frac{4aabb}{ff}$, or

$\frac{4aayy}{4aabb} \times ff = xx - aa$, that is, $\frac{ffyy}{bb} = xx - aa$, which is the proposed equation.

Thus,

Thus, in the equation $\frac{abyy}{cc} = xx - aa$, the transverse semiaxis or semidiameter $= a$, and the conjugate $= \sqrt{\frac{acc}{b}}$. In the equation $xx - 2ax = \frac{bbyy}{cm}$, the transverse semiaxis or semidiameter $= a$, and the conjugate $= \frac{a}{b}\sqrt{cm}$. In the equation $\frac{aa - bb}{cc}yy = xx - bb$, the transverse semiaxis or semidiameter will be $= b$, and the conjugate $= \sqrt{\frac{bbcc}{aa - bb}}$, &c.

To find the
loci when re-
ferred to a
parameter.

125. If the equations be referred to parameters, as $\frac{2ayy}{p} = aa - xx$, or $\frac{2ayy}{p} = xx - aa$, taking the abscissas from the centre; or $\frac{2ayy}{p} = 2ax - xx$, or $\frac{2ayy}{p} = 2ax + xx$, or $\frac{2ayy}{p} = xx - 2ax$, taking the abscissas from the vertex; in the first, the transverse semiaxis or semidiameter will always be the root of the constant term; and in the second, the half of the co-efficient of the unknown quantity of the first dimension; and the parameter will always be the quantity of the denominator of the co-efficient of the square of the ordinate, when the numerator of the same co-efficient in the first is double to the root of the constant term; and in the second, is equal to the quantity which multiplies the unknown quantity of the first dimension. But when the said denominator has not the afore-mentioned conditions, the parameter shall be the fourth proportional to the numerator, the denominator, and the axis or transverse diameter.

Therefore, in the equation to the ellipsis $aa - xx = \frac{byy}{c}$, the axis or transverse diameter shall be $= 2a$, and the parameter $= \frac{2ac}{b}$. And, since it ought to be, by the property of the ellipsis, as the rectangle of the sum into the difference of the semiaxis or transverse semidiameter and the abscissas, is to the square of the ordinate, so the axis or transverse diameter is to the parameter; it will be $aa - xx . yy :: 2a . \frac{2ac}{b}$, that is, $\frac{byy}{c} = aa - xx$, which is the equation proposed. In the equation $xx - aa = \frac{3yy}{4}$, which is to the hyperbola, the axis or transverse diameter $= 2a$, the parameter $= \frac{8a}{3}$. In the equation to the hyperbola $2ax + xx = \frac{b - c}{m}yy$, the axis or transverse diameter will be $2a$, and the parameter $\frac{2am}{b - c}$. In the equation to the ellipsis $aa - bb$

— xx

— $xx = \frac{byy}{c}$, the axis or transverse diameter will be $= 2\sqrt{aa - bb}$, and the parameter $= \frac{2c\sqrt{aa - bb}}{b}$; supposing a to be greater than b , for otherwise the curve would be imaginary.

126. These things being premised, and well understood, the construction of The *loci* to more complicate equations, or of all other *Loci* to the conic sections, will be the conic very easy; and that by reducing such complicate equations to the simple primary sections distributed into equations here exhibited. So that, the description of such a conic section being three species, supposed, we may proceed to the construction of the proposed equation.

Now, to proceed with the greater perspicuity, I shall distribute all equations to the conic sections into three species or classes, I mean all complicate ones. Those of the first class shall be all such as contain the square of only one of the unknown quantities, and the rectangle of the other unknown quantity into a constant quantity. As, for example, $ax \pm ab = yy$. And moreover, all those shall be said to be of the first species, which contain rectangles of the unknown quantities one among another, and with constant quantities, but have not the square of either of the unknown quantities. As $xy + ax = aa - ay$; the signs being of any kind, which is also to be understood of the signs of the other two species.

Of the second species I call those, in which there are the squares of one or both the unknown quantities, and also their rectangles into constant quantities, but not their rectangle into each other; as $xx + 2ax = ay + by$, or $xx - 2bx = yy + ay - ax$.

Those are of the third species, in which are contained rectangles of the two unknown quantities into each other, and other terms of what kind soever; such as $xx + 2xy + 2yy = aa - xx + bx$.

127. To distinguish and construct equations of the first species, there is *Loci* of the occasion to make use of one substitution, which is, to put the unknown quantity first species which has no square, *plus* or *minus* (according to the signs), a constant quantity, constructed, equal to some new unknown quantity; and thus to reduce the equation, (re- with ex- peating this substitution if there be occasion,) to a more simple expression, so amples, that the *locus* of the said equation may be easily known and constructed; as may be seen in the following Examples.

And, because we have also, by the other substitution, $y = z - a$, making $AN = a$, and drawing NH parallel to FF , it will be $DE = y$. Therefore, drawing BQ parallel to AN , Q will be the beginning of the absciss x . Thus, to any absciss $QD = x$ will correspond the ordinate $DE = y$, positive between the points Q and P , and negative beyond the point P , as HI . But, when p is taken less than a , that is, AC less than AB , then, as it is $x = p - a$, x will be negative, that is, towards N ; and to it will correspond the positive ordinates y . Now, if we take p negative, and equal to AU for example, x will be negative, and equal to QO , and y negative $= OE$. If the equation were $xy + ax = aa + ay$, or else, $xy + ax = -aa - ay$, or this, $xy - ax = aa - ay$, or this, $xy - ax = -aa + ay$; the two first would be divisible by $y + a$, and we should have $x = \pm a$. The two others would be divisible by $y - a$, and we should have $x = \pm a$. Therefore they would not be *loci*, but equations of determinate problems. But if it were $xy - ax = aa + ay$, the first substitution would be $y - a = z$, whence the equation $zx - az = 2aa$; and consequently the second substitution would be $x - a = p$; whence finally the equation $zp = 2aa$; and therefore, in this case, to the co-ordinates p, z , must be added the quantity a , in order to have x and y . And therefore, taking from A towards U the line $AR = a$, and drawing RG parallel to MN and equal to a , then, through the point G drawing GT parallel to FF , G shall be the origin of the absciss x , and the corresponding ordinates shall be y .

If the equation were $xy + ax = -aa + ay$, the substitutions would be $y + a = z$, and $x - a = p$, which would give us the equation $pz = -2aa$.

Let the same hyperbolas be described, but in the other two angles, because the constant rectangle $2aa$ is negative; and let them be *ie, ie*. Producing GR to L , this will be the origin of x both affirmative and negative. And upon the right line LQ , produced both ways, the ordinates y will insist, that is, negative from N towards H , and positive from N to the point i ; and again negative beyond the point i .

If it were $xy - ax = -aa - ay$, the substitutions would be $y - a = z$, and $x + a = p$. Therefore, the same hyperbolas *ie* being described, and QB being produced to q , this will be the origin of the absciss x , and the ordinates y will insist upon TT .

If, in the equations, the term xy should be negative, it may be made positive by transposing the terms.

The diversity of substitutions, and of the position of the co-ordinates, which arises from the different combinations of the signs in the proposed equations, and whatever else has been considered here, is to be supplied in what follows, where, for brevity-sake, I shall omit it.

Hitherto I have supposed, that the constant quantities of the equation are such, as may make room for the aforesaid substitutions. If they should not be
P such,

such, as, for example, if the equation were $aa - bx = yy$, we must make $aa = bc$, and then we shall have $bc - bx = yy$, and the substitution to be made would be that of $c - x$ equal to a new unknown quantity. Thus, if it were $\frac{abb}{m} + cx = yy$, we must make $bb = cf$, whence the equation $\frac{acf}{m} + cx = yy$. And then we must put $\frac{af}{m} + x$ equal to some new unknown quantity.

If it were $\frac{aax - bbx + m^3}{a + b} = yy$, we might make $aa - bb = cc$, and $m^3 = ccf$, and then it would be $\frac{ccx + ccf}{a + b} = yy$. And the like of others.

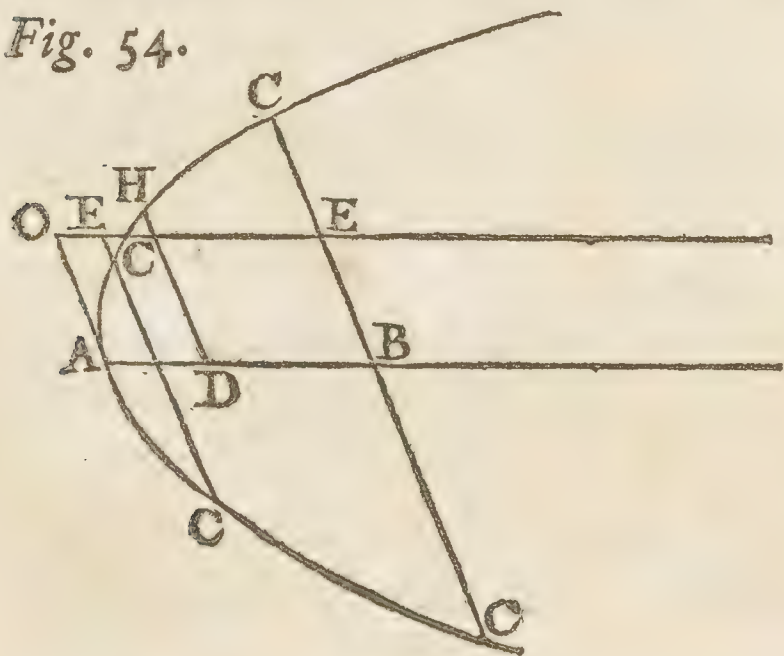
*Loci of the
second species
constructed.*

Loci of the second species constructed. 128. To reduce and construct equations of the second species; let all the terms which contain the same unknown quantity be put in order on one side of the sign of equality, and on the other side all the other terms in order likewise; and in the first member of the equation let the square of the unknown quantity be positive, and free from co-efficients and fractions. To the same first member, (and to the second also, to preserve the equality,) must be added the square of half the co-efficient of the second term, if it be necessary, so as the first member may be a square. Then put the root of that square equal to a new unknown quantity; which operation must be performed in the second member also, if it require it. This will give us an equation reduced to the simplest terms, or to an equation of the first species.

EXAMPLE III.

Let the equation be $xx + 2ax = ay + by$. Add the square aa on each side, and it will be $xx + 2ax + aa = aa + ay + by$. And now, making $x + a = z$, we shall have $zz = aa + ay + by$, which is now reduced to the first species. Then, making $a + b = c$, and $aa = cf$, it will be $cf + cy = zz$; and putting $f + y = p$, it will be $zz = cp$, an equation to the *Apollonian* parabola.

Fig. 54.



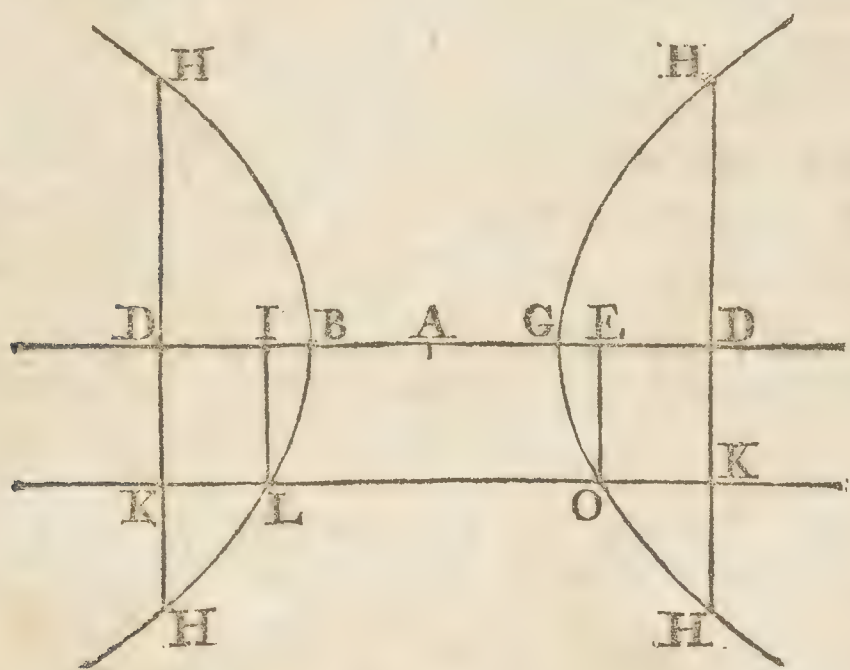
With parameter $c = a + b$, on the diameter AB, and with the co-ordinates in a given angle, let the parabola CAC be described. Then, taking any absciss $AB = p$, and BC shall be z , either positive or negative. And, because $y = p - f = p - \frac{aa}{a+b}$, taking $AD = \frac{aa}{a+b}$, it will be $DB = y$. And, because of the substitution $x + a = z$,
from

from the point D draw $DH = a$ parallel to BC, which will be terminated by the parabola in H, (as will easily be seen by substituting, instead of p in the reduced equation $zz = cp$, the value of $AD = \frac{aa}{a+b} = \frac{aa}{c}$; for it will become $zz = aa$, and therefore $DH = z = a$;) and drawing through the point H the line OE parallel to the diameter, it will be $HE = DB = p - \frac{aa}{a+b} = y$, and consequently $EC = z - a = x$ positive, and negative also when the abscissas are positive. And to the negative abscissas, that is, taking them from H towards O, both the negative ordinates will correspond.

EXAMPLE IV.

Let the equation be $xx + 2bx = yy - ay$. Let there be added the square of half the co-efficient of the second term, that is bb ; then it will be $xx + 2bx + bb = yy - ay + bb$. And making $x + b = z$, we shall have $zz = yy - ay + bb$, that is, $zz - bb = yy - ay$. And adding the square of $\frac{1}{2}a$, it will be $zz - bb + \frac{1}{4}aa = yy - ay + \frac{1}{4}aa$. Then make $y - \frac{1}{2}a = p$, and it will be $zz - bb + \frac{1}{4}aa = pp$. And supposing bb greater than $\frac{1}{4}aa$, and making $bb - \frac{1}{4}aa = mm$, it will be $zz - mm = pp$, an equilateral hyperbola with the semidiameters $= m$, and taking the abscissas from the centre.

Fig. 55.



In the indefinite line BD I take $BG = 2m = 2\sqrt{bb - \frac{1}{4}aa}$, and divide it equally in A. With centre A, the transverse diameter $= 2AG$, equal to the conjugate, and with the co-ordinates in a given angle, describe the two opposite and equilateral hyperbolas. Taking any abscissas positive and negative $AD = z$, the corresponding ordinates DH will be p , positive and negative. And because, by the substitution, it is $x = z - b$, taking $AE = b$, it will be $ED = x$. But, by the other substitution, it being $y = p + \frac{1}{2}a$,

from the point E drawing $EO = \frac{1}{2}a$, parallel to the ordinate, which will terminate at the curve in the point O; and through that point O draw the indefinite line KK parallel to the diameter BG, it will be $KH = p + \frac{1}{2}a = q$. Therefore the point O will be the origin of the abscissas x on the right line KK, to which, taken positively, will correspond the two ordinates y , one positive and the other negative. And taking it negative, but not greater than EG, two

positive ordinates will correspond to it; but taking it negative and greater than EG, but less than EB, the ordinates y will be imaginary; and taking it negative greater than EB, and less than EI, making $BI = GE$, the two ordinates will be positive; and lastly, one of the ordinates will be positive, and the other negative, when the abscissæ, being negative, shall be greater than EI.

Here it should be observed, that the root of the square $yy - ay + \frac{1}{4}aa$ is not only $y - \frac{1}{2}a$, but also $\frac{1}{2}a - y$, and therefore the substitutions should be two, that is, both $y - \frac{1}{2}a = p$, and $\frac{1}{2}a - y = p$. Yet, notwithstanding, in the present example, and in others that follow, I only make use of the first. For, considering, in these constructions, the new unknown quantity p is to be understood both as positive and negative, herein will be comprehended those determinations also, which the other substitution would supply, and which therefore would be superfluous here.

If the quantity bb , which I have supposed greater than $\frac{1}{4}aa$, should, on the contrary, be less, the *locus* would be to the same hyperbolas, only by changing the places of the co-ordinates and of the constant quantities. That is, the final equation would be $zz = pp - mm$, the construction of which is here omitted, because it is not different from the foregoing, only that the semidiameters here are each equal to $\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}aa - bb} = m$. Now, if it were $bb = \frac{1}{4}aa$, the *locus* would degenerate into a right line, as is plain.

*Loci of the
third species
constructed.*

129. To distinguish and construct equations of the third species, it is necessary that, putting the square of one of the unknown quantities made positive, and free from fractions and co-efficients, together with the rectangle of the same, on one side of the mark of equality, and on the other side all the remaining terms; adding to the first member (and consequently to the second also) such a fraction of the other unknown quantity, that the first member may be a square; then putting it's root equal to a new unknown quantity, and making the substitution; by means of which an equation may be had, reduced to a more simple expression, or to one of the two species before-mentioned.

Thus, in this equation, for example, $zz - \frac{2bzy}{a} = ay$, adding $\frac{bbyy}{aa}$ to both members, the first member will be a square, the root of which is $z - \frac{by}{a}$, which is to be put equal to a new unknown quantity p ; and, making the substitution, the equation will be $pp = \frac{bbyy}{aa} + ay$, which is now reduced to the second species.

130. But

130. But it may be observed, that sometimes the new unknown quantity to be introduced should be affected by some constant co-efficient, otherwise the constructions would be much incumbered. For example, in the equation $xx \pm \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbyy}{aa} = \pm fy \pm bx$, the first member of which, without any addition, is already a square, whose root is $x \pm \frac{by}{a}$; if the term bx were not there, or being there, if we would eliminate x out of the equation, we might do it, by putting, instead of x , it's value obtained by the substitution, so that it may be expressed by the new unknown quantity, and by y with constant quantities; therefore the substitution of $x \pm \frac{by}{a} = z$ should be made.

Complicate
loci of any
species re-
duced to
simple by
substitution;
with ex-
amples.

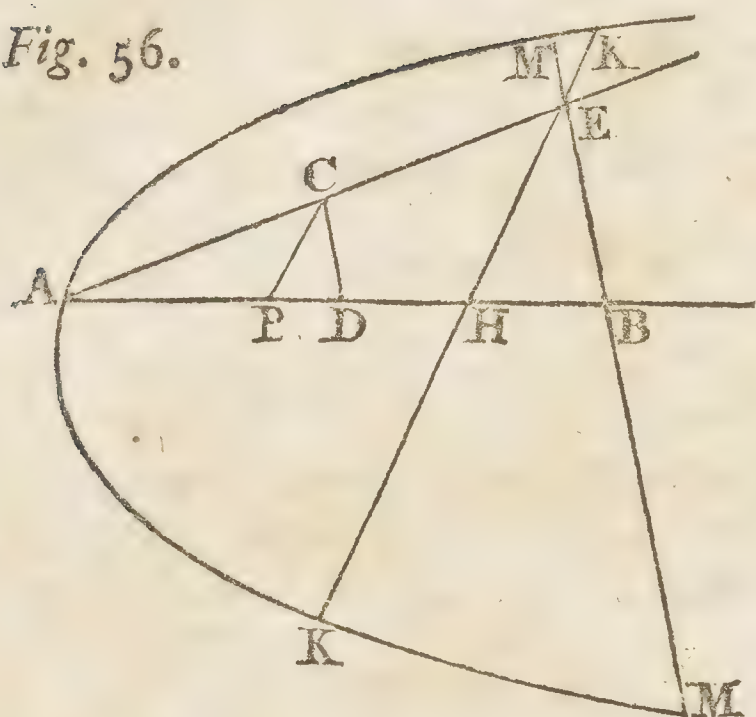
But if the term fy were not there, or being there, if we would eliminate y , we must make a substitution of $x \pm \frac{by}{a} = \frac{bz}{a}$. And thus, respectively, if the equation were $yy \pm \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa} = \pm fy \pm bx$, the term fy not being there, or else to be eliminated, a substitution must be made of $y \pm \frac{bx}{a} = z$; or the term bx not being there, or being to be eliminated, a substitution of $y \pm \frac{bx}{a} = \frac{bz}{a}$ is to be made.

In general, the rectangle of constant quantities into that unknown quantity by which the equation is ordered, not being in the equation; or being there, if we would eliminate that unknown quantity, we must put the root of the first member equal to a new unknown quantity. But if the rectangle of constant quantities into the other unknown quantity, by which the equation is not ordered, be not in the equation, or if, being there, we would eliminate that unknown quantity, we must put the root of the first member equal to a new unknown quantity, multiplied into half the constant co-efficient of the second term of the first member.

EXAMPLE V.

Let the equation be $yy + \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa} = cx$. Make $y + \frac{bx}{a} = z$, and the equation will be $zz = cx$, which is to the *Apollonian* parabola. If the angle of the co-ordinates x, y , of the proposed equation be not given, but left at pleasure,

Fig. 56.



the construction of the *locus* would be manifest. For, on the indefinite right line AB describing the isosceles triangle ACD, with the base $CD = b$, and the sides $AC = AD = a$; and on the diameter AB, with a parameter $= c$, and with ordinates parallel to DC describing the parabola of the reduced equation $zx = cx$; taking any absciss at pleasure $AB = x$, it would be $BM = z$. But, by the similar triangles ADC, ABE,

we shall have $EB = \frac{bx}{a}$, and, by the substitution, it is $y = z - \frac{bx}{a} = EM$, and

also $AE = AB = x$. Therefore, upon the indefinite line AE taking any absciss $AE = x$, the corresponding ordinate EM, positive or negative, will be the y of the proposed equation. But, because the angle of the co-ordinates x and y is supposed to be given, the construction foregoing will not obtain, but we may proceed thus. On the indefinite line AB let a triangle ACP be described, having the angle ACP equal to the supplement of the given angle, which the co-ordinates of the proposed equation ought to make; and let $AC = a$, $CP = b$. Produce AC indefinitely, and, taking any line $AE = x$, make KK

parallel to PC, and it will be $EH = \frac{bx}{a}$. Whence, if $HK = z$, it will be $EK = y$;

and then AE, EK, are the co-ordinates of the proposed equation, and in the angle given. But HK cannot be yet the z of the reduced equation $cx = zx$, since the absciss AH are not yet equal to the x 's, nor yet the lines AE. Observe, there-

fore, that AH will be $= \frac{AP \times x}{a}$, that is, $= \frac{fx}{a}$, (making $AP = f$, because,

in the triangle ACP, having given the sides AC, CP, and the angle ACP, the line AP will also be given;) whence the curve thus described, calling $AE = x$,

and $HK = z$, will give us the equation $\frac{cfx}{a} = zx$, which would be exactly

our equation reduced, if, instead of the parameter c , we had described the

curve with the parameter $\frac{ac}{f}$. Therefore, to construct the proposed *locus*, on

the indefinite line AB describe the triangle ACP, the sides of which are $AC = a$, $CP = b$, and the angle ACP equal to the supplement of that angle which the co-ordinates of the proposed equation ought to make. Then with diameter AB,

parameter $= \frac{ac}{f}$, equal to the fourth proportional of AP, of AC, and of the

parameter of the reduced equation, (which is general, whenever the *locus* is to

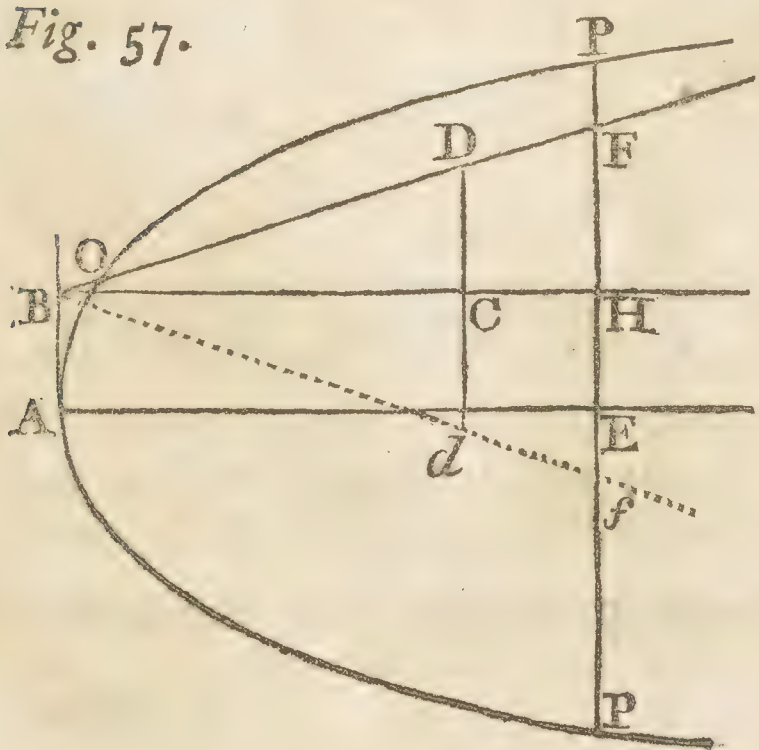
the parabola,) and with ordinates parallel to PC, the *Apollonian* parabola must be described. Then taking, on the indefinite line AE, any absciss $AE = x$, EK positive and negative will be $= y$, and the curve will be the *locus* of the equation proposed. For it will be HK equal to the rectangle of the parameter into AH, or $yy + \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa} = \frac{acf x}{af} = cx$.

The same artifice may be made use of in other equations, to the hyperbola and to the ellipsis, in regard to their diameters and parameters, with this difference only, that in these the transverse diameter, or conjugate, according as this or that ought to be changed, (and it will always be that to which the triangle ACP belongs,) will be the fourth proportional of AC, AP, and the transverse or conjugate diameter of the equation reduced. But as to the parameter, when the equation is given by that, the transverse diameter being varied in the manner aforegoing, it will be the fourth proportional of AP, AC, and the parameter of the reduced equation. But if the triangle ACP do not belong to the transverse diameter, but to the conjugate, (the equation being given by the parameter,) it will be the third proportional of the parameter of the reduced equation, and of AP; as will easily be known by the examples.

EXAMPLE VI.

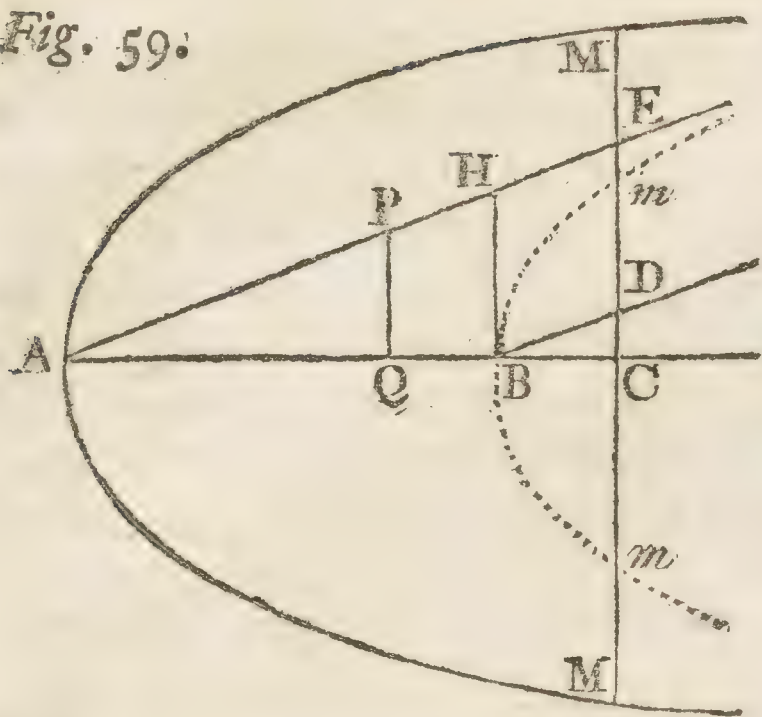
Let the equation given be $yy + \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa} = bx - cc - 2cy$. Making a substitution of $y + \frac{bx}{a} = z$, it will be $zz = bx - cc - 2cz + \frac{2bcx}{a}$, that is $zz + 2cz + cc = bx + \frac{2bcx}{a}$. And making again another substitution of $z + c = q$, it will be finally $qq = \frac{ab + 2bc}{a}x$, an equation to the *Apollonian*

Fig. 57.



parabola. Now, to construct it relatively to our co-ordinates x, y ; on the indefinite right line BH let the triangle BCD be constructed with it's sides $BD = a$, $DC = b$, and with an angle BDC equal to the supplement of that angle, which ought to be made by the co-ordinates x, y , of the equation proposed. Then let BD, BC, be produced indefinitely, and from the point B draw BA parallel to DC, and equal to c . Then from vertex A to the diameter AE parallel to BC, and with the ordinates EP parallel to CD, let the parabola

Fig. 59.



finite line AC describe the triangle APQ with the sides $AP = b$, $PQ = a$, and the angle APQ equal to the supplement of the angle which should be made by the co-ordinates of the proposed equation; and call the known line $AQ = f$, as usual. Let AP, AQ, be produced indefinitely, take $AH = b$, and draw the line HB parallel to PQ. From the point B let the indefinite line BD be drawn parallel to AP; and with vertex A, to the diameter AC, with the parameter $= \frac{aac}{bf}$, and with the ordinate CM parallel to

PQ, let the parabola MAM be described. Taking any line $AE = p$, it will be $CM = z$; then HE or $BD = x$, and $DC = \frac{ax}{b}$, because of the similar triangles APQ, BDC. Then is $DM = z - \frac{ax}{b} = y$ positive and negative, and the lines BD, DM, are the co-ordinates of the proposed equation.

If the equation had been given $xx + \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbyy}{aa} = cx - cb$, making the same first substitution as in the foregoing equation, we should have $\frac{bbzz}{aa} = cx - cb$; and, putting $x - b = p$, it is $zz = \frac{aacp}{bb}$, which is the same as the first, nor is there any other difference, but only in the first case there is $x = p - b$, and here it is $x = p + b$. That is, in the present case the vertex of the parabola must be at B, and the origin of the absciss x must be in the point A, taken on the indefinite line AE.

EXAMPLE VIII.

Let the equation be $xx + \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbyy}{aa} = cb - cx$. Make the substitution of $x + \frac{by}{a} = \frac{bz}{a}$, and the equation will be $\frac{bbzz}{aa} = cb - cx$; and putting $b - x = p$, it will be $zz = \frac{aacp}{bb}$, an equation to the parabola.

Q

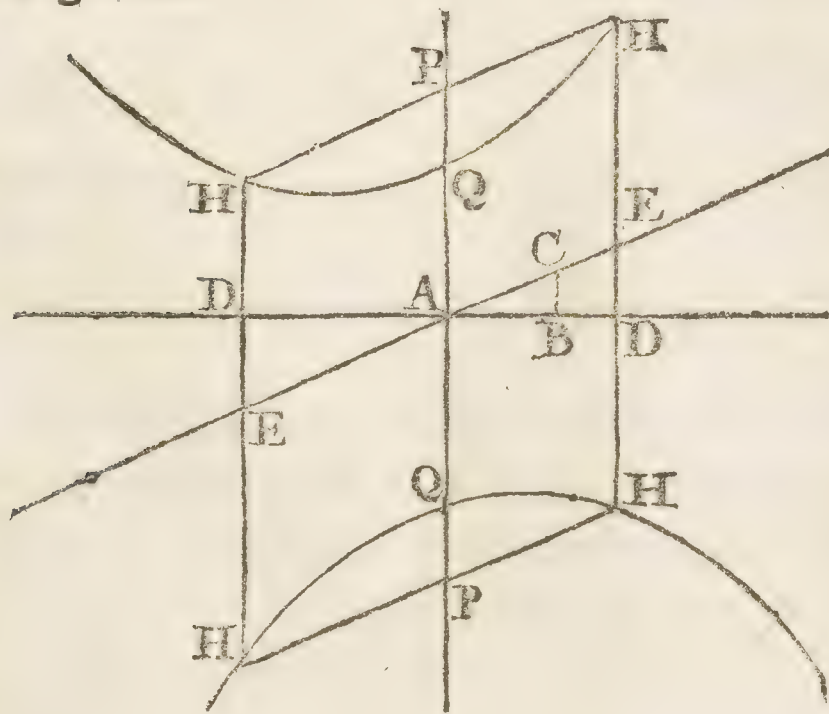
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nates parallel to CH. Taking any line $AB = x$ positive, it will be $BE = \frac{bx}{a}$. But $ED = z$: Then is $BD = z + \frac{bx}{a} = y$ positive. And taking in the hyperbola the ordinate z negative, that is $= EM$, then will y be equal to the difference between EB and EM , that is, equal to BM ; and therefore negative when x is greater than AO . Then to any positive absciss greater than AO will correspond two ordinates, one positive and the other negative; and both the ordinates will be positive when x is less than AO . But when x is taken negative, that is on the side of the point Q , then it must be observed that QE will be negative; for the analogy will be, $AC (a) \cdot CH (b) :: AQ (-x) \cdot QE = -\frac{bx}{a}$. Therefore, if $QE = -\frac{bx}{a}$, taking z positive $= ED$, it will be $z + \frac{bx}{a} = QD = y$ positive; and taking z negative, it will be $-z - \frac{bx}{a} = QM = y$ negative.

EXAMPLE X.

Let the equation be $yy - \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{gxx}{a} = bb$. Adding $\frac{bbxx}{aa}$, it will be $yy - \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa} = bb - \frac{gxx}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa}$; and making the substitution of $y - \frac{bx}{a} = z$, it will be $zz = \frac{bbxx}{aa} - \frac{gxx}{a} + bb$. And putting $bb - ag = mm$, it will be $zz = \frac{mmxx}{aa} + bb$, that is, $zz - bb = \frac{mmxx}{aa}$, an equation to the hyperbola.

Fig. 62.



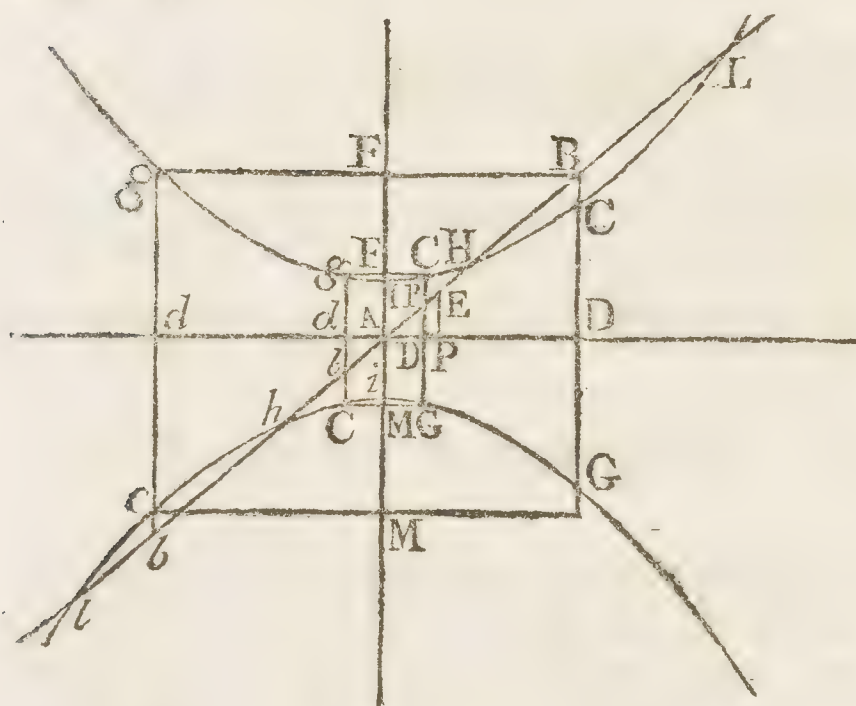
On the indefinite right line DD let the triangle ABC be described, with the sides $AB = a$, $BC = b$, and the angle ABC equal to that which is to be contained by the co-ordinates of the proposed equation; and make the known line $= f$. Through the point A draw the indefinite line PP parallel to BC , and with centre A , transverse diameter $QQ = 2b$, conjugate $= \frac{2bf}{m}$ taken in the right line EE , at the vertices Q, Q' , let there be described the two opposite hyperbolas HQH . Then taking any

any line $AD = x$, and drawing DH parallel to BC , it will be $EH = x = AP$, and $DE = \frac{bx}{a}$. Then $DH = x + \frac{bx}{a} = y$, and the lines AD , DH , shall be the co-ordinates of the proposed equation.

EXAMPLE XX.

Let the equation be $yy + \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa} = \frac{2bxx}{a} + bb$. Making the substitution of $y + \frac{bx}{a} = z$, the equation will be $zz = \frac{2bxx}{a} + bb$, that is, $zz - bb = \frac{2bxx}{a}$, which is to the hyperbola.

Fig. 63.



On the indefinite line AD let the triangle AEP be described, and make $AE = a$, $EP = b$, and the angle AEP the supplement of the angle, which is to be contained by the co-ordinates of the proposed equation. The right line AE being produced indefinitely both ways, and calling, as usual, the known line $AP = f$; with centre A , transverse semi-diameter $AI = b$ parallel to PE , and with parameter $= \frac{ff}{a}$, describe the opposite hyperbolas IC, ic ; then taking any line $AB = x$, it will be $BD = \frac{bx}{a}$, and

$CD = FA = z$. Then $BC = z - \frac{bx}{a} = y$. Taking z negative $= DG$, it will be $BG = -z + \frac{bx}{a} = -y$, and therefore to the same positive x will

belong two ordinates y , one positive, the other negative, taking x between the points A, H . Then taking x between the points H, L , both the ordinates y will be negative; and again, one positive, the other negative, taking x greater than AL .

Then.

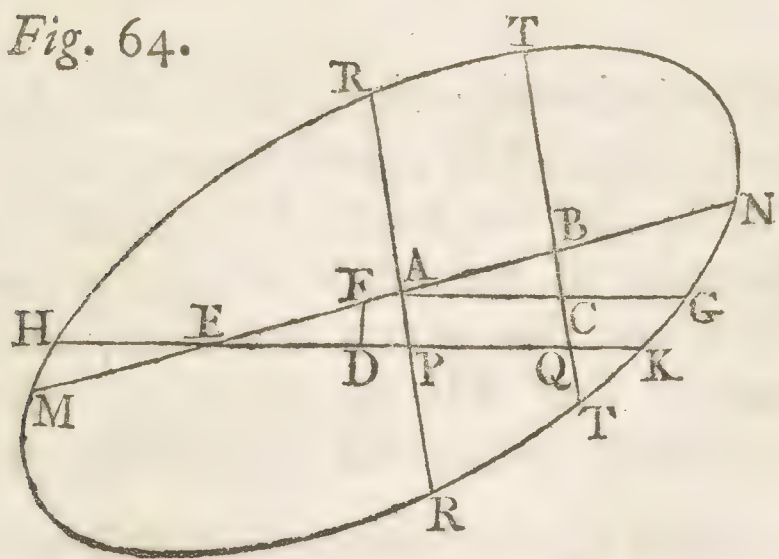
Then taking $Ab = -x$, it will be $(bd) = -\frac{bx}{a}$, and as it is $(dg) = z$, it will be $(bg) = z - \frac{bx}{a} = y$; and taking z negative $= (dc)$, it will be $(bc) = -z + \frac{bx}{a} = -y$. Therefore to the same $Ab = x$ negative will correspond two ordinates y , one of which is positive, the other negative, taking x less than Ab ; both the ordinates will be positive between the points b and l ; and again, one ordinate will be positive, and the other negative, taking x greater than Al . And therefore the hyperbolas thus described will be the *locus* of the proposed equation.

EXAMPLE XII.

Let the equation be $yy - \frac{2bxy}{a} + \frac{bbxx}{aa} = cc - xx + 2bx - bb$. Making the substitution of $y - \frac{bx}{a} = z$, it will be $zz = cc - xx + 2bx - bb$. And making another substitution of $x - b = p$, it will be finally $zz = cc - pp$, which is an equation to an ellipsis, and not to a circle, though it may have the appearance of such. The reason of which is, because the co-ordinates p, z , do not form a right angle, yet however are in an angle to each other, one of them

being AC , the other BT , as may be seen in the following construction. On the indefinite line EB let a triangle EDF be described, with the sides $ED = a$, $DF = b$, and the angle EDF equal to the angle which is made by the co-ordinates of the proposed equation; and making the known line $EF = f$. Produce indefinitely the lines ED, EF , and taking $EP = b$, draw the indefinite line PA parallel to DF , and from the point A the line AG parallel to EP .

Fig. 64.



With centre A , transverse diameter $MN = \frac{2cf}{a}$, with conjugate diameter RR , equal to $2c$ and parallel to DF , let the ellipsis $MRNR$ be described; then taking any line $AC = p$, it will be $EQ = x$, and therefore $BQ = \frac{bx}{a}$. But $BT = z$; then $QT = z + \frac{bx}{a} = y$; then will EQ, QT , be the co-ordinates of the *locus* required.

EX-

be described. And taking any line $RD = q$, it will be $PN = p$, and therefore $AD = x$, $DC = \frac{bx}{2a}$, $CN = z$; then $DN = z - \frac{bx}{2a} = y$.

Here it is to be observed, that if the angle of the co-ordinates should be such, as that the angle AFS becomes a right angle, and consequently the angle MPN is so too; then it would be $4aa - bb = ff$, whence $\frac{m}{n} = \frac{4aa - bb}{4aa} = \frac{ff}{4aa}$, and therefore the parameter would be $\frac{4aem}{fn} = \frac{ef}{a}$, that is, equal to the transverse diameter. Then the angle MPN being also right, the ellipsis would degenerate into a circle with the diameter $= \frac{ef}{a}$.

131. As to equations of the hyperbola between the asymptotes, which may be required to be constructed, they may all be understood to be comprehended in the four examples following.

General construction of the *loci* to the hyperbola between it's asymptotes; with examples.

$$(1.) \quad \frac{gxx}{b} + xy = ab \pm mx \pm ny.$$

$$(2.) \quad -\frac{gxx}{b} + xy = ab \pm mx \pm ny.$$

$$(3.) \quad \frac{gxx}{b} - xy = ab \pm mx \pm ny.$$

$$(4.) \quad -\frac{gxx}{b} - xy = ab \pm mx \pm ny.$$

EXAMPLE XIV.

First, let the equation be $\frac{gxx}{b} + xy = ab + mx + ny$, in which I take all the terms positive of the *homogeneum comparationis*. Making a substitution of $\frac{gx}{b} + y = z$, we shall have $zx = mx + nz - \frac{ngx}{b} + ab$; and, making another substitution of $z - m + \frac{ng}{b} = p$, it will be $px = np + mn + ab - \frac{nng}{b}$. Again, make a third substitution of $x - n = q$, and, finally, it will be $pq = ab + nm - \frac{nng}{b}$. Supposing now that $ab + nm - \frac{nng}{b}$ is a positive quantity;

But if the second term of the *homogeneum comparationis* should be negative, that is, if the equation were $\frac{gxx}{b} + xy = ab - mx + ny$; then the second substitution would be $z = p - m - \frac{ng}{b}$, and the equation reduced $pq = ab - mn - \frac{mng}{b}$. Supposing then that $ab - mn - \frac{mng}{b}$ were a positive quantity, describe, as in Fig. 67, the hyperbolas RR, but with the constant rectangle $\overline{ab - mn - \frac{mng}{b}} \times \frac{f}{b}$, and taking $AD = m + \frac{ng}{b}$, this would be in the same manner the *locus* of the proposed equation.

Fig. 68.

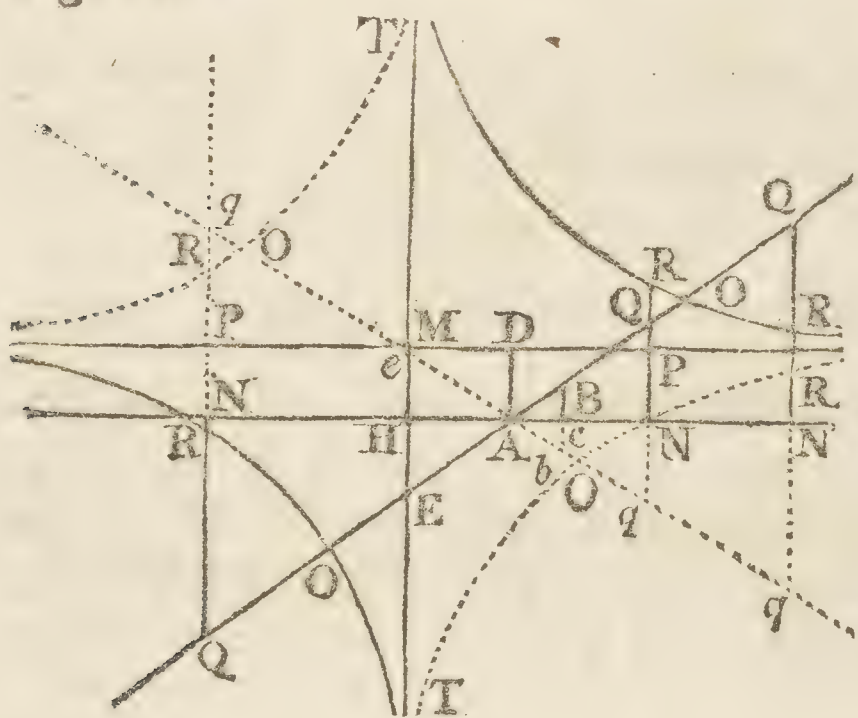
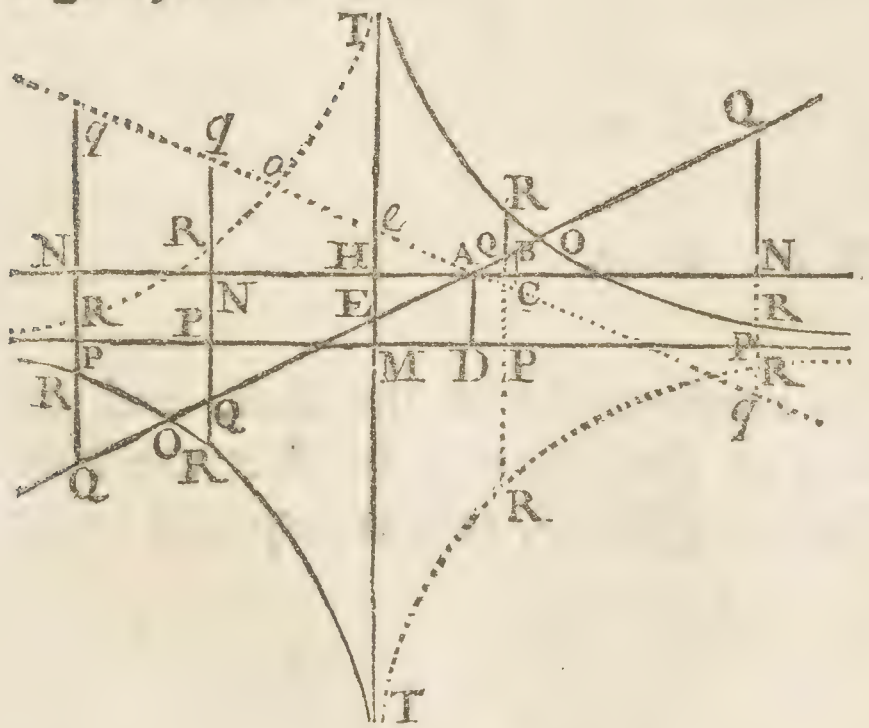


Fig. 69.



If the equation proposed had the last term affected by the negative sign, that is, if it were $\frac{gxx}{b} + xy = ab \pm mx - ny$, the third substitution to be made would be $x + n = q$, whereas before it was $x - n = q$, and therefore the position of the point A, the origin of x , would be changed. Then, in Fig. 68, if the value of AD be positive, and in Fig. 69, if it be negative, the side BA of the usual triangle being produced to E, so that $AE = n$; between the asymptotes TT, PP, let the hyperbolas be described of the constant rectangle belonging to them, that is, when in the equation the term mx is affected by the positive sign, then the

constant rectangle $= ab - mn - \frac{ng}{b} \times \frac{f}{b}$, and when, on the contrary, it is affected by the negative sign, the constant rectangle will be $= ab + mn - \frac{ng}{b} \times \frac{f}{b}$; and taking, in the first case, $AD = m + \frac{ng}{b}$, and in the second, $AD = \frac{ng}{b} - m$,

the *locus* of the proposed equation will be after the same manner.

Hitherto I have supposed, that the constant rectangle of the reduced equation is a positive quantity ; but when it happens to be negative, the construction would

would not be different, only observe to describe the hyperbolas in the other two angles, relatively to the constant rectangle, which the reduced equation will supply; taking the line AD positive or negative, according to it's value which the same equation will give, and the point A either to the right or left of the asymptote TT, according as the last term of the *homogeneum* shall be positive or negative, as is clear by Fig. 66, 67, 68, 69.

The constant term ab has hitherto been taken for positive, but if it were negative it could make no other alteration, but to make negative the constant rectangle of the reduced equations, which case has already been constructed. Wherefore the first of the four equations proposed has now been constructed in general.

As to the second equation of those exhibited above, which is $-\frac{gxx}{b} + xy = ab \pm mx \pm ny$; the first substitution to be made is $y - \frac{gx}{b} = z$, that is, $y = z + \frac{gx}{b}$, and let all the rest be done as before.

Therefore, to obtain the ordinate y , it will be necessary to join $\frac{gx}{b}$ to z , whence in each case of Fig. 66, 67, 68, 69, the triangle ABC must be described under the line NN, as is seen at AbC, with the sides $Ab = b$, $bC = g$, and with the angle AbC equal to the angle which ought to be contained by the co-ordinates of the equation proposed; whence, Ab being produced both ways, and taking any line $Aq = x$, the corresponding line qR will be the ordinate y required.

The two last equations of the four were these, but with their signs changed.

$$-\frac{gxx}{b} + xy = -ab \mp mx \mp ny.$$

$$\frac{gxx}{b} + xy = -ab \mp mx \mp ny.$$

But this has been already constructed in the construction of the first, and the other is already constructed in the construction of the second; so that the four equations at first proposed are now constructed in general, as was required to be done.

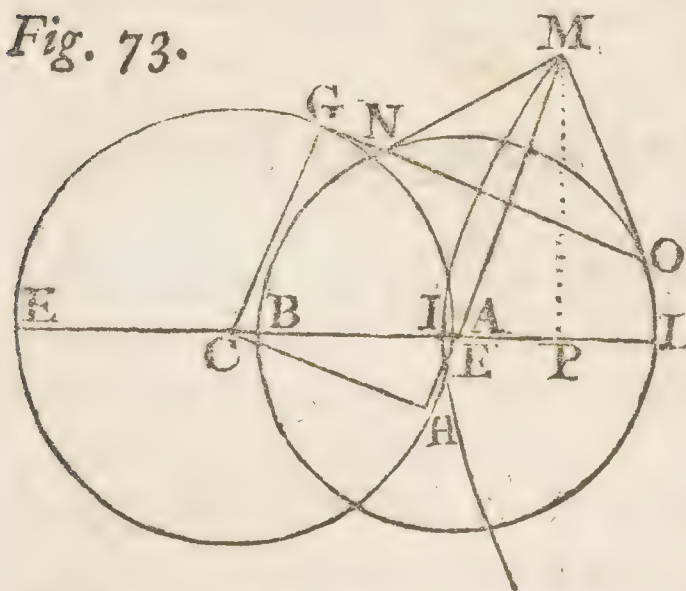
In the similar triangles AOM, AQO, it will be $AM \cdot OA :: OA \cdot AQ$; and substituting the analytical values, we shall find $AQ = \frac{aa}{\sqrt{xx+yy}}$. Draw CH perpendicular to MA, produced if need be; it will be $HQ = CG$, and therefore $HA = b - \frac{aa}{\sqrt{xx+yy}}$. But the triangles CAH, AMP, will be similar; therefore $PA \cdot AM :: AH \cdot AC$; that is, $x \cdot \sqrt{xx+yy} :: b - \frac{aa}{\sqrt{xx+yy}} \cdot c$; and multiplying extremes and means, $cx = b\sqrt{xx+yy} - aa$, or $cx + aa = b\sqrt{xx+yy}$. Then squaring, $ccxx + 2aacx + a^4 = bbxx + bbyy$, that is, $yy + \frac{bb-cc}{bb}xx - \frac{2aacx}{bb} - \frac{a^4}{bb} = 0$.

In this equation there are three cases that ought to be distinguished; that is, when $b = c$, when b is greater than c , and when c is greater than b .

First, let $b = c$, then the equation will be $yy - \frac{2aax}{b} - \frac{a^4}{bb} = 0$, or $yy = \frac{2a^2x}{b} + \frac{a^4}{bb}$. And finding a rectangle $2bf = aa$, put it instead of aa in the last term of the second member, and it will be $yy = \frac{2aax + 2aaf}{b}$; and making

the substitution of $x + f = z$, it will be at last $yy = \frac{2aaz}{b}$, an equation to the *Apollonian* parabola. On the right line CA,

Fig. 73.



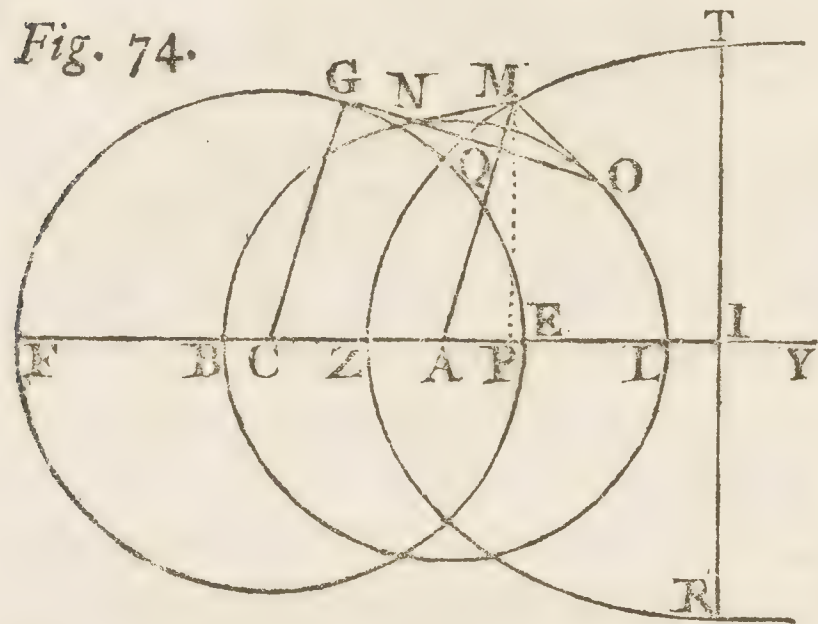
towards C take $AI = \frac{aa}{2b} = f$, and with vertex

I, axis IL, parameter $\frac{2aa}{b}$, let the parabola IM

be described. This will be the *locus* required; in which, taking any line $IP = z$, it will be $PM = y$; but $AI = f$, then $AP = z - f = x$, and the lines AP, PM, will be the co-ordinates of the Problem.

Secondly, let b be greater than c , which will make the term $\frac{bb-cc}{bb}xx$ to be positive. If we write the equation thus, $\frac{bb-cc}{bb}xx - \frac{2aacx}{bb} = \frac{a^4}{bb} - yy$; or thus, $xx - \frac{2aacx}{bb-cc} = \frac{a^4}{bb-cc} - \frac{bbyy}{bb-cc}$, and adding to both members the square $\frac{a^4cc}{(bb-cc)^2}$, it will be $xx - \frac{2aacx}{bb-cc} + \frac{a^4cc}{(bb-cc)^2} = \frac{a^4bb}{(bb-cc)^2} - \frac{bbyy}{bb-cc}$; and

making the substitution of $x - \frac{aac}{bb - cc} = z$, it will be finally $\frac{bbyy}{bb - cc} = \frac{a^4bb}{(bb - cc)^2} - zz$, which is an equation to the ellipsis.

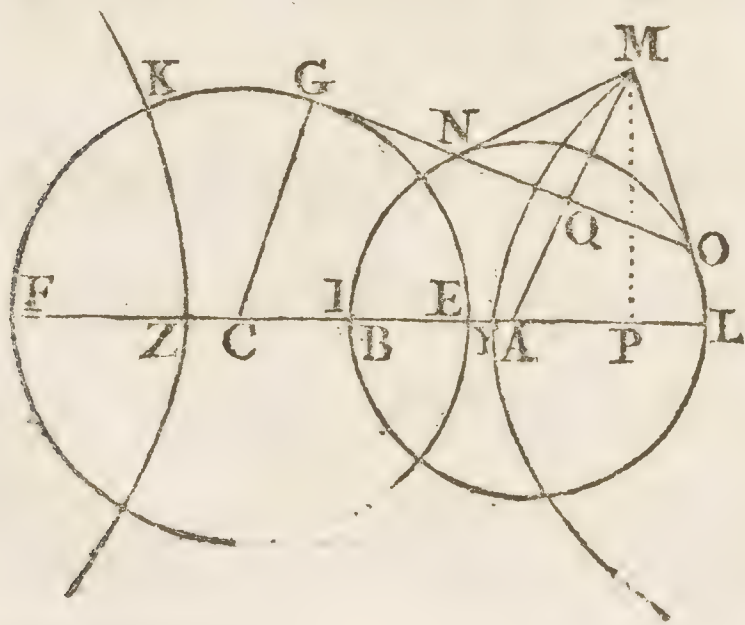


From the point A towards Y take the portion $AI = \frac{aac}{bb - cc}$, and with centre I, transverse axis $ZY = \frac{2aab}{bb - cc}$, and conjugate $RT = \frac{2aa}{\sqrt{bb - cc}}$, let the ellipsis RZTY be described, which will be the *locus* required. In this, taking any line $IP = -z$, (that is, on the negative side,) and it will be $PM = y$. But $AI =$

$\frac{aac}{bb - cc}$; therefore $AP = z + \frac{aac}{bb - cc} = x$, and therefore the lines AP, PM, will be the co-ordinates of the Problem.

Lastly, let c be greater than b , then the quantity $\frac{bb - cc}{bb}xx$ will be negative, and therefore the equation is $\frac{cc - bb}{bb}xx + \frac{2aacx}{bb} = yy - \frac{a^4}{bb}$, or $xx + \frac{2aacx}{cc - bb} = \frac{bbyy - a^4}{cc - bb}$. Add the square $\frac{a^4cc}{(cc - bb)^2}$ on both sides, and the equation will be $xx + \frac{2aacx}{cc - bb} + \frac{a^4cc}{(cc - bb)^2} = \frac{bbyy}{cc - bb} + \frac{a^4bb}{(cc - bb)^2}$. And making the substitution of $z = x + \frac{aac}{cc - bb}$, it will be at last $zz - \frac{a^4bb}{(cc - bb)^2} = \frac{bbyy}{cc - bb}$, an equation to an hyperbola, when referred to it's axis.

Fig. 75.



On the right line CA, towards the point C take the portion $AI = \frac{aac}{cc - bb}$, and with centre I, transverse axis $ZY = \frac{2aab}{cc - bb}$, and conjugate $= \frac{2aa}{\sqrt{cc - bb}}$, describe the opposite hyperbolas YM, ZK; these shall be the *locus* required. In which, taking any line $IP = z$, it will be $PM = y$. But $AI = \frac{aac}{cc - bb}$; then
AP

$AP = z - \frac{aac}{cc - bb} = x$. And therefore the lines AP, PM, will be the co-ordinates of the Problem.

In this Problem it is always supposed, that the circle EFG is greater than the circle BNO, or that b is greater than a ; but if it should be either $b = a$, or $b < a$, the *locus* of the points required in the first case would always be a parabola, in the second an ellipsis, and in the third two opposite hyperbolas; so that it would be needless to distinguish these cases, which make no variation in the *loci*.

PROBLEM IV.

Fig. 76.

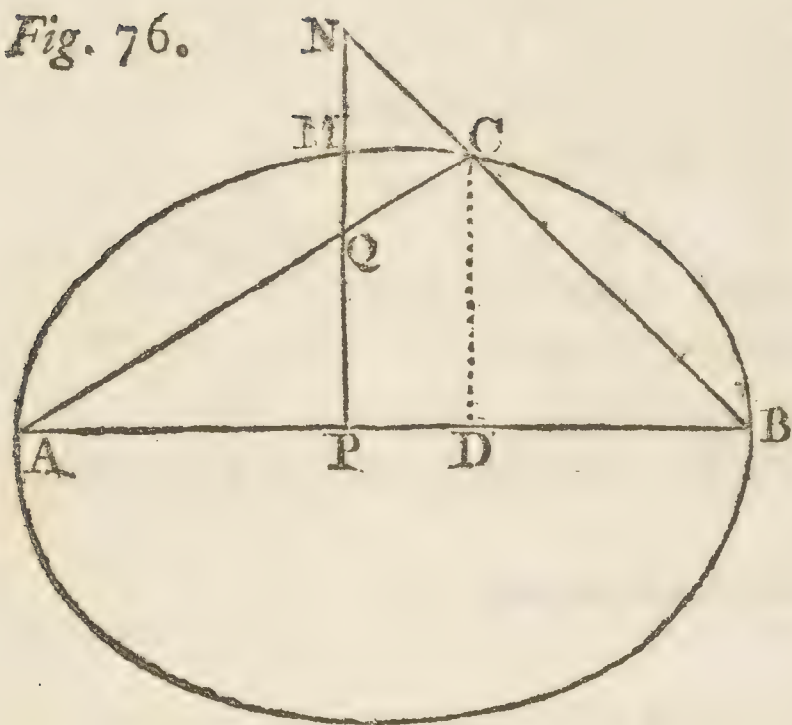
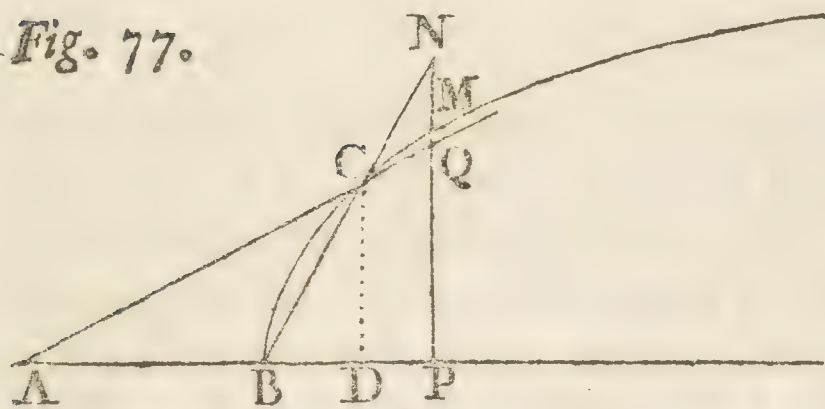


Fig. 77.



135. Two right lines AC, CB, (Fig. 76, 77.) are given in position on the right line AB, which cut one another in C; the *locus* is required of all the points M, such that, drawing through them a perpendicular PMN to AB, which cuts the line AC in the point Q, and the line BC in the point N, the square of PM may be equal to the rectangle PQ \times PN.

Let the right line CD be drawn parallel to PM; this will fall either between the points A, B, as in Fig. 76, or on one side of them, as in Fig. 77.

First, let it fall between the points A, B, and make $AB = a$, $AP = u$, $PQ = x$, $PM = y$, $PN = z$. By the condition of the Problem, it will be $zx = yy$. But the ratio of AP to PQ is given, which therefore may be put as m to n . Also, the ratio of BP to PN is given, which may be as b

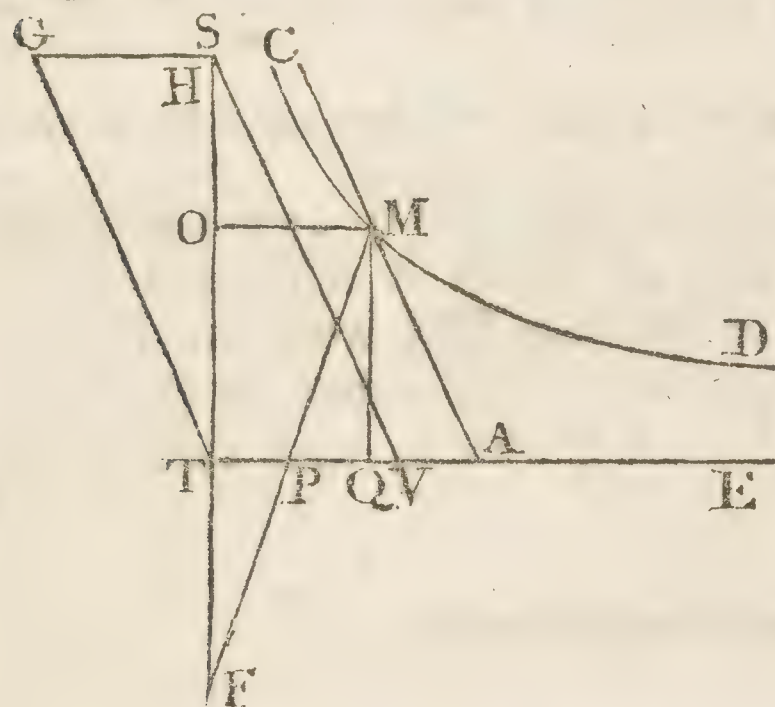
to c . Then it will be $PQ = x = \frac{un}{m}$, and $PN = z = \frac{ac - uc}{b}$. These values therefore being substituted in the equation $zx = yy$, it will be $yy = \frac{ac - uc}{b} \times \frac{un}{m}$, or $\frac{bmyy}{cn} = au - uu$, an equation to an ellipsis with transverse axis $AB = a$, conjugate $a\sqrt{\frac{cn}{bm}}$. Such an ellipsis AMB being described, the upper half AMCB will be the *locus* required.

Now

Let the curve be now arrived at the point a of the right line ET ; it will be, by the construction of the Problem, $Pp = Aa$, and therefore $AP = ap$. Make $AP = a$, $FT = b$; and from the point M letting fall the perpendicular MQ to ET , make $TQ = x$, $QM = y$, $AQ = t$. Because of the similar triangles FOM , PMQ , it will be $FO \cdot OM :: QM \cdot PQ$, that is, $b + y \cdot x :: y \cdot PQ$. $= \frac{xy}{b+y}$. But $PQ = a - t$; therefore $\frac{xy}{b+y} = a - t$, or $xy = ab - bt + ay - ty$.

Now, in this canonical equation, if we substitute the value of t given by y , and by the known quantities of the equation of the curve AM , we shall have the required equation of the curve CMD .

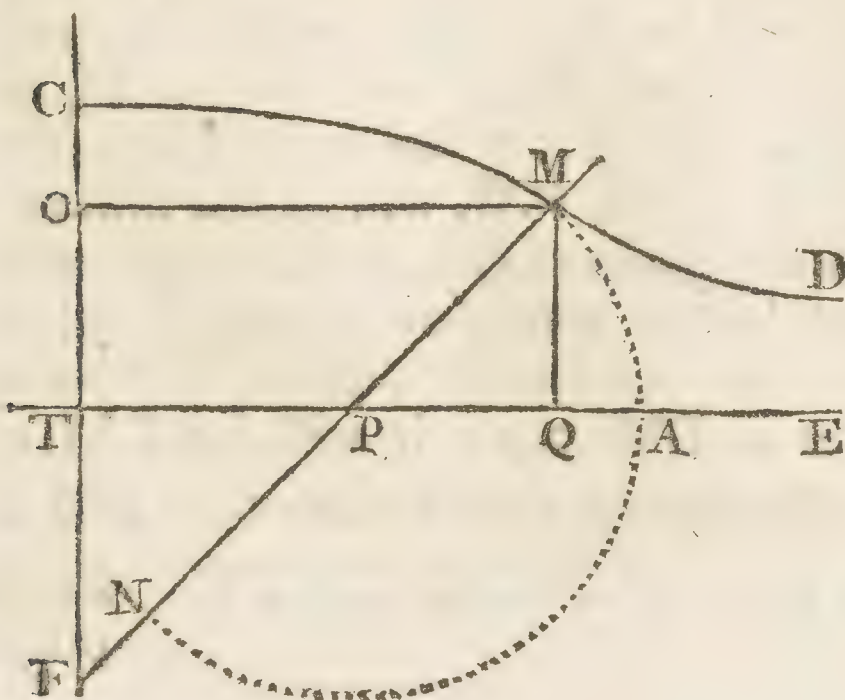
Fig. 80.



First, let AM be a right line. The ratio of t to y will be given, which let be that of m to n ; then $t = \frac{my}{n}$. And, substituting this value of t in the canonical equation, it will be $\frac{myy}{n} = ab - xy - \frac{bmy}{n} + ay$; a *locus* to the hyperbola between the asymptotes.

To construct it in the given figure, on FO take any portion TH , and in a right angle draw HG such, that it may be $FH \cdot HG :: n \cdot m$; draw TG , and upon TA taking the portion $TV = \frac{an - bm}{n}$, from the point V draw VS parallel to TG ; and between the asymptotes VS , VE , describe the hyperbola CMD with the constant rectangle $= \frac{abg}{n}$; (making the known line $TG = g$.) Then taking any absciss $TQ = x$, the corresponding ordinate will be $QM = y$, and the hyperbola will be the *locus* of the equation $\frac{myy}{n} = ab - xy - \frac{bmy}{n} + ay$.

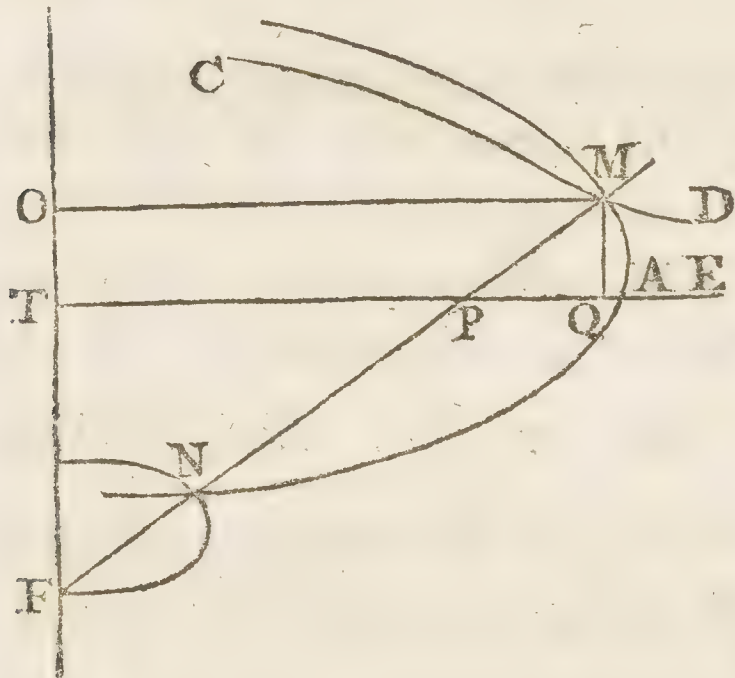
Fig. 81.



In the second place, let AM be a circle described with centre P , radius $AP = a$. By the property of the circle, it will be $AQ = t = a - \sqrt{aa - yy}$; and instead of t substituting this value in the general equation, it will be $xy = \overline{b+y} \times \sqrt{aa - yy}$, an equation to the conchoid of *Nicomedes*. And the curve CMD , which is described by the intersection M of the right line FM with the superior arch of the circle AM , will be the upper conchoid, ET will

will be the asymptote, F the pole. And the curve which is generated by the intersection N of the right line FM with the circle under ET, will be the lower conchoid. This appears evidently from the nature of the conchoid, and from the condition of the Problem. For the two lines PM, PN, intercepted between the asymptote and the curve, will always be equal to the radius of the circle AP.

Fig. 82.



section with the inferior part. And the right line ET will in this case be the asymptote of the curve.

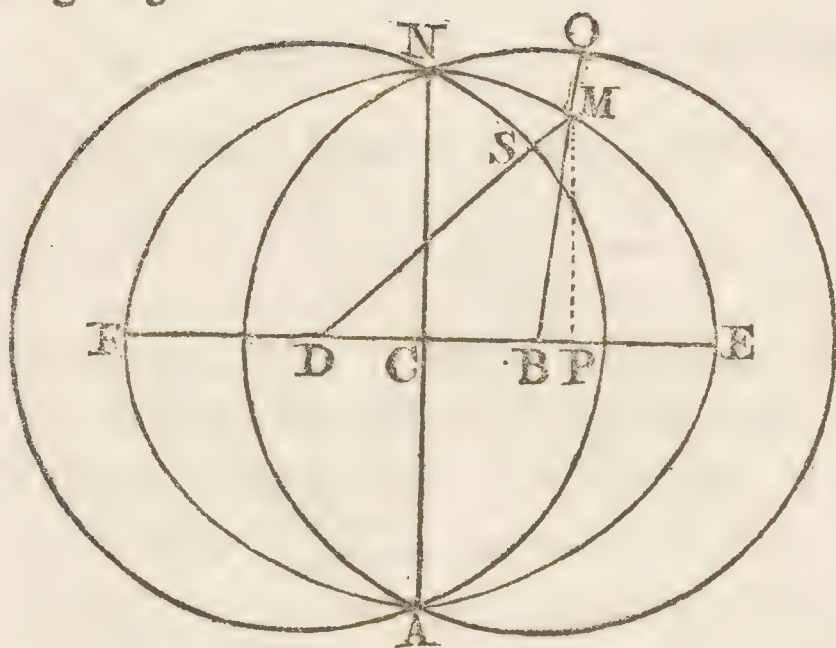
In the third place, let the curve AM be an *Apollonian* parabola, with a parameter $AP = a$.

On this hypothesis, it will be $t = \frac{yy}{m}$; and this value of t being substituted in the canonical equation, it will be $xy - ay + \frac{y^3}{m} = ab - \frac{byy}{m}$, that is, $y^3 + mxy + byy - amy - abm$

$= 0$. This is an equation to two parabolical conchoids, one of which is described by the intersection of the line FM with the superior part of the parabola; the other by the inter-

PROBLEM VI.

Another. Fig. 83.



137. Two equal circles being given, cutting each other in two points A, N, and their centres D, B, being given; it is required to find the *locus* of all the points M such, that their distances from the said circles may always be equal to one another.

Let M be one of the points required; then drawing from the centres D, B, through this point the right lines DM, BO, then MS, MO, will be the distances from the given circles, which ought to be equal by the condition of the Problem.

Therefore make $DS = BO = a$, $DB = b$, and the perpendicular MP being let fall upon DB produced, make $DP = x$, $PM = y$; it will be $DM = \sqrt{xx + yy}$, and $SM = \sqrt{xx + yy} - a$. But $BP = x - b$, therefore $BM = \sqrt{xx - 2bx + bb + yy}$, and thence $OM = a - \sqrt{xx - 2bx + bb + yy}$. But it ought

ought to be $SM = MO$; whence we shall have the equation $\sqrt{xx + yy} - a = a - \sqrt{xx - 2bx + bb + yy}$. By the methods already taught this will be reduced to $xx - bx + \frac{1}{4}bb = aa - \frac{4aayy}{4aa - bb}$; and making the substitution of $x - \frac{1}{2}b = z$, it will be $zz = aa - \frac{4aayy}{4aa - bb}$, or $\frac{4aayy}{4aa - bb} = aa - zz$, which is an equation to an ellipsis.

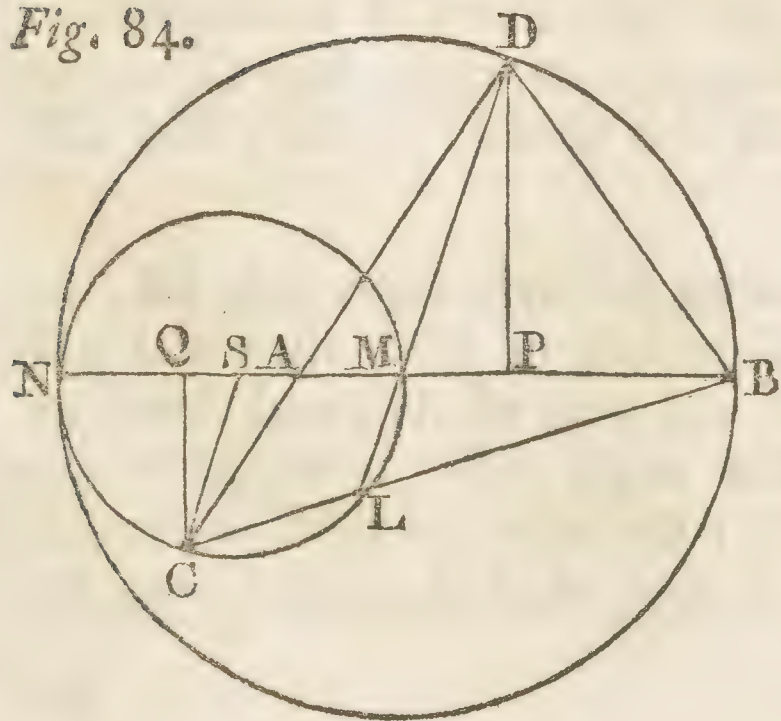
Let the right line DB be bisected in the point C, and with centre C, transverse axis $FE = 2a$, and conjugate $AN = \sqrt{4aa - bb}$, let the ellipsis FAEN be described, which will be the *locus* required. For, taking any line $CP = z$, it will be $PM = y$; but $CD = \frac{1}{2}b$, therefore $DP = z + \frac{1}{2}b = x$, and therefore the lines DP, PM, are the co-ordinates of the Problem proposed.

It would be needless to distinguish the cases, in which a is greater, equal to, or less than b , because the Problem will still be of the same nature, b being always less than $2a$, as plainly appears.

It follows from this construction, that the points D, B, will be the *foci* of the ellipsis, and that it's conjugate axis will be terminated at the points, in which the two circles cut each other. And first, because $DS = BO$, and $SM = MO$, it will be $DS + SM + MB$, that is, $DM + MB = 2DS$; but $2DS = FE$, therefore, by the known property of the ellipsis, the points D, B, will be it's *foci*. This supposed, by another property of the ellipsis relating to the *foci*, conceiving the lines BA, BN, to be drawn, it will be $BN = BA = CE$. But this is verified in the points, in which the two given circles will cut each other; for D, B, are their centres, and CE, by construction, is equal to the semidiameter of the same circles. Therefore the ellipsis will pass through the said points of intersection of the given circles. Q. E. D.

PROBLEM VII.

Fig. 84.



138. The right line AB being given, to Another. find the *locus* of such points D, that, in the produced line DA, taking AC half of AD, and drawing to the point B the right line CB, this may be equal to CD.

Let D be one of the points required, from whence let fall DP perpendicular to AB. Make $AB = a$, $AP = x$, $PD = y$; it will be $AD = \sqrt{xx + yy}$, and, by the condition of the Problem, $AC = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{xx + yy}$: where-

S 2

fore

fore $CD = CB = \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{xx + yy}$. From the point C draw CQ perpendicular to BA produced. Now, because of the similar triangles AQC, APD, and $AD = 2AC$, it will be $AP = 2AQ$, and $PD = 2QC$; whence $CQ = \frac{1}{2}y$, and $AQ = \frac{1}{2}x$. Therefore $BQ = a + \frac{1}{2}x$. Now $CBq = CQq + BQq = aa + ax + \frac{1}{4}xx + \frac{1}{4}yy$. But $CBq = CDq = \frac{9}{4} \times \overline{xx + yy}$; whence we shall have the equation $\frac{9}{4}xx + \frac{9}{4}yy = aa + ax + \frac{1}{4}xx + \frac{1}{4}yy$, which is reduced to $xx - \frac{1}{2}ax = \frac{1}{2}aa - yy$. Now, adding to both members the square $\frac{1}{16}aa$, and making the substitution of $x - \frac{1}{4}a = z$, it will be finally $zz = \frac{9}{16}aa - yy$, an equation to the circle.

Therefore, taking $BM = \frac{3}{4}a$, and with centre M, and radius BM, describe the circle NDB, this will be the *locus* required; in which, taking any line $MP = z$, it will be $PD = y$; but $AM = \frac{1}{4}a$, therefore $AP = z + \frac{1}{4}a = x$, and the lines AP, PD, will be the co-ordinates of the proposed Problem.

If we would have also the *locus* of the points C, this would be another Problem of a like nature, which might be resolved in the following manner.

Make $AQ = p$, $QC = q$, which is perpendicular to BN; it will be $AP = 2p$, $PD = 2q$; but $AM = \frac{1}{4}a$, and $MB = \frac{3}{4}a$. Then $NA = \frac{1}{2}a$, and therefore $NP \times PB = \frac{1}{2}aa + ap - 4pp$. But, by the property of the circle, $NP \times PB = PDq$ and $= 4qq$. Then it will be $4qq = \frac{1}{2}aa + ap - 4pp$. Whence $\frac{1}{8}aa - qq = pp - \frac{1}{4}ap$. Add to both sides the square $\frac{1}{64}aa$, and making the substitution of $p - \frac{1}{8}a = t$, it will be $qq = \frac{9}{64}aa - tt$. Whence, with diameter $MN = \frac{3}{4}a$ describing the semicircle NCM, this will be the *locus* of all the points C; in which, taking from the centre S any line $SQ = t$, it will be $QC = q$. But $AS = \frac{1}{8}a$ by the construction. Then $AQ = t + \frac{1}{8}a = p$, and the lines AQ, QC, will be the co-ordinates of the Problem.

These two Problems may be demonstrated conjunctly in form of a theorem, after the following manner.

In the given line AB is taken MB equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ of AB, and with centre M, radius MB, a circle NDB is described; and also with diameter MN the circle NCM; through the point A drawing any how the right line CD terminated at the periphery of each circle, and from the point C the right line CB to the extremity of the diameter, it will always be DA the double of AC, and CD equal to CB.

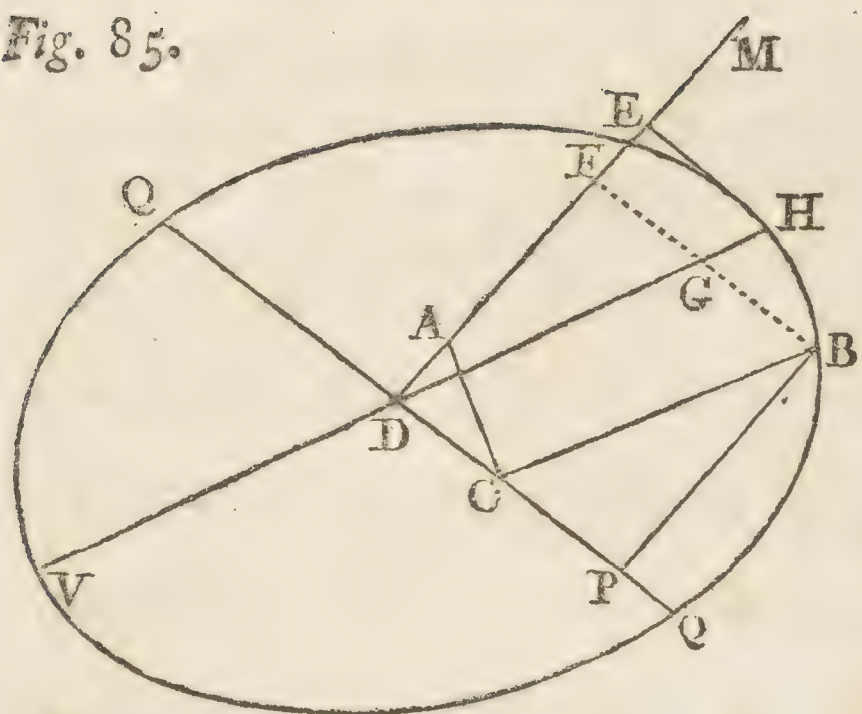
Let S be the centre of the circle NCM, and let the right lines SC, DL, be drawn through the centres S, M. Because SM is half of MB, then will SM be $\frac{3}{8}$ of AB. But AM is $\frac{1}{4}$ of it; therefore SA will be $\frac{1}{8}$ of AB, and therefore $\frac{1}{2}$ of AM. But SC is also half of DM, and the angle SAC is equal to the angle DAM; therefore it is easy to perceive, that the triangle SAC is similar to the triangle DAM, and that therefore AC is half of AD, which was the first thing.

But

But if the triangles SAC, ADM, be similar, then the angle SCA will be equal to the angle ADM; whence the right lines SC, DL, will be parallel, and consequently the triangles BLM, BCS, are similar, and therefore ML will be the fourth proportional to BS, SC, and MB. But $BS = \frac{2}{3}AB$, $SC = \frac{3}{8}AB$, $MB = \frac{6}{8}AB$. Therefore $ML = \frac{2}{8}AB = AM$. But $MD = MB$, and the angle $AMD = LMB$. Therefore the triangles AMD, BML, are equal, and the angle $ADM = MBL$. But also the angle $MDB = MBD$, so that the angle $CDB = CBD$, and therefore the side $CB = CD$; which was the second thing.

PROBLEM VIII.

Fig. 85.



139. The two sides AC, CB, of the Another *norma* ACB being given, the *locus* is required of all the points, through which the extremity B of the side CB will pass, whilst the *norma* moves in such manner, that it's point A shall always be upon the line DM, and the point C upon the line DP, which is supposed perpendicular to DM.

From the point B let fall BP perpendicular to DP, and make $DP = x$, $PB = y$, $AC = a$, $CB = b$; it will be $CP = \sqrt{bb - yy}$, $DC = x - \sqrt{bb - yy}$.

But the angles DCA, BCP, taken together, are equal to a right angle, as also the angles BCP, CBP; and therefore the angles DCA, CBP, will be equal to each other. Then the triangles ADC, BCP, will be similar, and it will be $AC \cdot CD :: BC \cdot BP$, that is, $a \cdot x - \sqrt{bb - yy} :: b \cdot y$, and thence $ay = bx - b\sqrt{bb - yy}$; and, by squaring and ordering, the equation will be $xx - \frac{2axy}{b} + \frac{a^2yy}{bb} = bb - yy$. Make the substitution of $x - \frac{ay}{b} = z$, and we shall have the equation $zz = bb - yy$, which is to the ellipsis.

On the indefinite line DM describe the triangle DEH with it's sides $DE = b$, $EH = a$, and with the right angle DEH, because the co-ordinates of the Problem make a right angle; and let the known line $DH = f$. With transverse semidiameter $DH = f$, and with the conjugate semidiameter $DQ = b$ and parallel to EH, describe the ellipsis HBQ; it shall be the *locus* required.

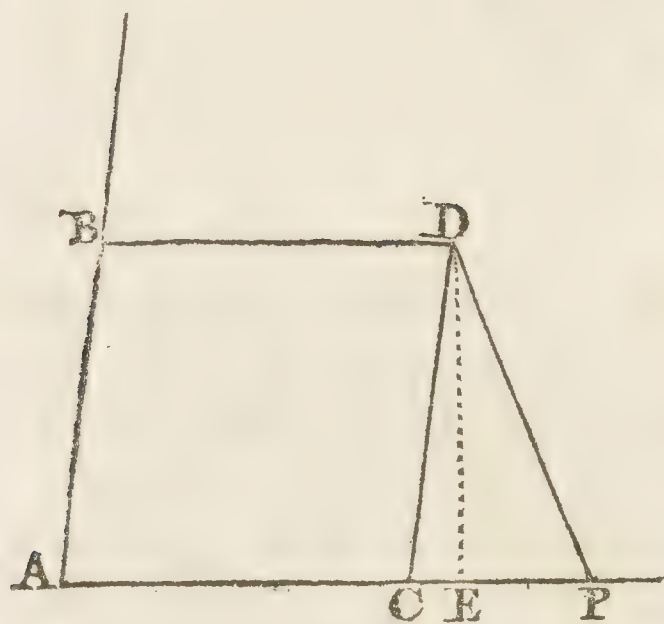
For, taking any line $DF = PB = y$, it will be $GB = z$, $FG = \frac{ay}{b}$; therefore

fore $FB = z + \frac{ay}{b} = x = DP$. And therefore the lines DP , PB , are the co-ordinates of the Problem.

PROBLEM IX.

Another.

Fig. 86.



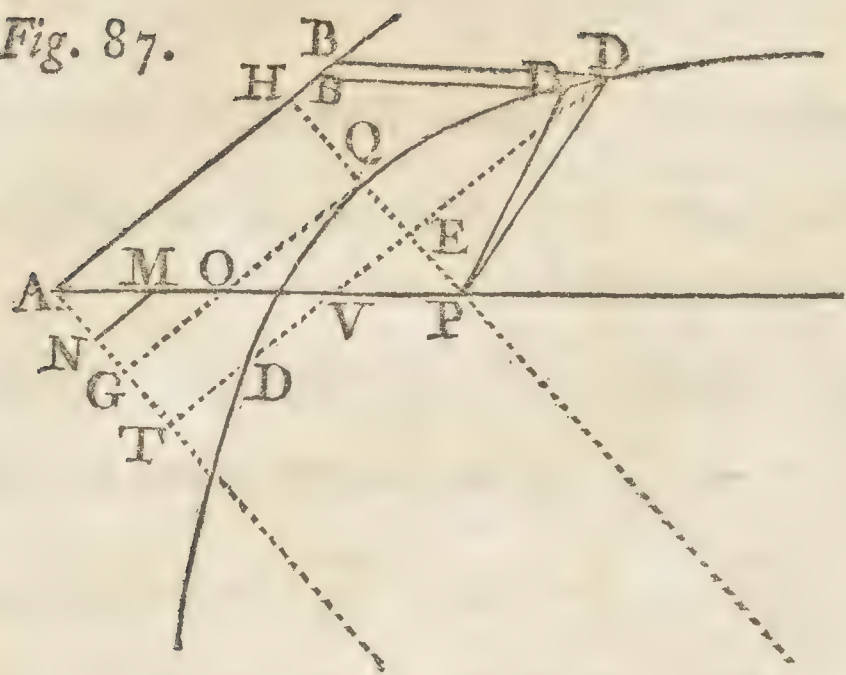
140. The angle BAP being given, and the point P being also given; it is required to find the *locus* of all such points D , that, drawing the two right lines, BD parallel to AP , and DP to the given point P , the lines BD , DP , may always be to each other in the given ratio of d to e .

Drawing DC parallel to AB , make $AP = a$, $AC = x$, $CD = y$, $CP = a - x$. Because the angle BAP or DCE is given, drawing DE perpendicular to AP , the ratio of CD to CE is given, which may be $CD : CE :: d : b$; then

$CE = \frac{by}{d}$, $AE = x + \frac{by}{d}$, $EP = a - x - \frac{by}{d}$, or else $= x + \frac{by}{d} - a$, $PD = \frac{ex}{d}$. Then it will be $CDq - CEq = DPq - PEq$, that is, $yy = \frac{eexx}{dd} - aa - xx + 2ax + \frac{2aby}{d} - \frac{2bxy}{d}$, or $yy + \frac{2bxy}{d} + \frac{bbxx}{dd} = \frac{ee + bb - dd}{dd}xx + 2ax - aa + \frac{2aby}{d}$, by adding the square $\frac{bbxx}{dd}$ on both sides. But here it may be observed, that the quantity $ee + bb - dd$ may either be equal to, greater, or less than, nothing; and, first, let it be equal to nothing, in which case the equation will become $yy + \frac{2bxy}{d} + \frac{bbxx}{dd} = \frac{2aby}{d} + 2ax - aa$. And making the substitution of $y + \frac{bx}{d} = z$, it will be $zz - \frac{2abz}{d} = 2ax - \frac{2abbx}{dd} - aa$. Then adding $\frac{aabb}{dd}$ on both sides, it will be $zz - \frac{2abz}{d} + \frac{aabb}{dd} = 2ax - \frac{2abbx}{dd} + \frac{aabb - aadd}{dd}$. Now, making the substitution of $z - \frac{ab}{d} = p$, it will be $pp = \frac{2addx - 2abbx + aabb - aadd}{dd}$, or $pp = \overline{x - \frac{1}{2}a} \times \frac{2add - 2abb}{dd}$; and making $x - \frac{1}{2}a = q$, it will become at last $pp = \frac{2add - 2abb}{dd}q$, an equation to the *Apollonian* parabola.

Let

Fig. 87.

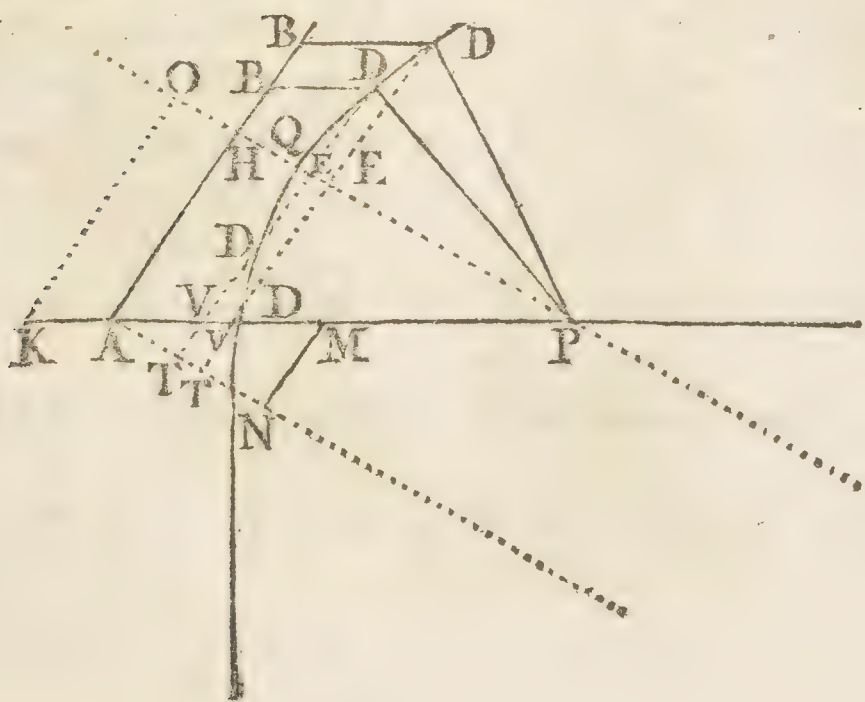


Let BAP be the given angle; the given line, $AP = a$. On AP, produced indefinitely, let there be described the triangle AMN with the angle $AMN = BAP$; and let $AM \cdot MN :: d \cdot b$. Produce AN indefinitely, and in AB take $AH = \frac{ab}{d}$, and draw HE indefinitely, and parallel to AN. Bisect AP in O, and draw OQ parallel to AB. With vertex Q, on the diameter QE, with parameter $= \frac{2add - 2abb}{df}$, (making $f = AN$), and

with the ordinates parallel to AB, describe the parabola QD. Take any line $QE = x$, it will be $ED = y$, and this parabola will be the *locus* required.

In the second place, let $ee + bb - dd$ be greater than nothing, or a positive quantity. Assuming therefore the equation, and making $ee + bb - dd = bb$, it will be $yy + \frac{2bxy}{d} + \frac{bbxx}{dd} = \frac{bbxx}{dd} - aa + 2ax + \frac{2aby}{d}$. And making the same substitution of $y + \frac{bx}{d} = z$, it will be $zz - \frac{2abz}{d} = \frac{bbxx}{dd} - aa + 2ax - \frac{2abbx}{dd}$; and adding $\frac{aabb}{dd}$, and making the substitution of $z - \frac{ab}{d} = p$, it will be $ddpp = bbxx + 2addx - 2abbx - aadd + aabb$; that is, $xx + \frac{2ad^2x - 2ab^2x}{bb} = \frac{ddpp}{bb} + \frac{aadd - aabb}{bb}$; make $\frac{aadd - aabb}{bb} = m$, then $xx + 2mx = \frac{ddpp}{bb} + am$; and adding mm to each side, it will be $xx + 2mx + mm = \frac{ddpp}{bb} + am + mm$, and making $x + m = q$, it will be finally $qq = \frac{ddpp}{bb} + am + mm$, that is, $qq - am - mm = \frac{ddpp}{bb}$, an equation to an hyperbola.

Fig. 88.



Let BAP be a given angle; the given line, $AP = a$. Upon AP, produced indefinitely, let the triangle AMN be described with the angle AMN equal to BAP; and let it be $AM \cdot MN :: d \cdot b$. Produce AN indefinitely, and in AB take $AH = \frac{ab}{d}$, and through the point H draw the indefinite line OE parallel to AN. Then make $AK = m$, and draw KO parallel to AH. With centre O,

Make $VP = a$, $VA = x$, $AD = y$; it will be $EB = \frac{ey}{d}$, and therefore $VB = \frac{by}{d}$. Because of the similar triangles CVP , CDA , it will be $DA \cdot PV :: CA \cdot CV$; and, by compounding, $DA + PV \cdot PV :: CA + CV \cdot CV$; that is, $a + y \cdot a :: x \cdot CV$, and therefore $CV = \frac{ax}{a+y}$. Again, because of similar triangles PVC , EBC , it will be $PV \cdot VC :: EB \cdot BC$, that is, $a \cdot \frac{ax}{a+y} :: \frac{ey}{d} \cdot BC$; whence $BC = \frac{exy}{ad+dy}$, and therefore the equation $BC + CV = BV$, that is, $\frac{exy}{ad+dy} + \frac{ax}{a+y} = \frac{by}{d}$, or $yy - \frac{exy}{b} = \frac{adx}{b} - ay$.

To construct this, make $y - \frac{ex}{b} = \frac{ez}{b}$, and, by substitution, it will be $\frac{exy}{b} = -ay - \frac{adx}{b} + \frac{ady}{e}$, that is, $zy + \frac{aby}{e} - \frac{adby}{ee} = -\frac{adz}{e}$.

Again, make $z + \frac{ab}{e} - \frac{adh}{ee} = p$; then it will be $py = \frac{aadb}{ee} - \frac{aaddb}{e^3} - \frac{adp}{e}$. And making a third substitution of $y + \frac{ad}{e} = q$, it will be $pq = \frac{aahd - aahdd}{e^3}$, an hyperbola between the asymptotes, the constant rectangle of which is positive, because e will always be greater than d .

Let PV be produced indefinitely, and take $VQ = \frac{ad}{e}$. From the point Q draw the indefinite line QS parallel to VB , and, taking any point M in the right line PH , draw MN parallel to VB . Then, because of similar triangles VMN , EBV , it will be $VM \cdot MN :: e \cdot b$. Make $VI = \frac{aeb - adb}{ee}$, and through the point I drawing the indefinite right line RIK parallel to VE , between the asymptotes RS , RK , describe the hyperbola OVD with the constant rectangle $= \frac{aahb - aaddb}{e^3} \times \frac{f}{e}$, (making the known line $VN = f$), which will necessarily pass through the point V . Taking any line $VH = y$, it will be $HD = x$, that is, $VA = x$, $AD = y$, and the curve thus constructed is the *locus* of the points D .

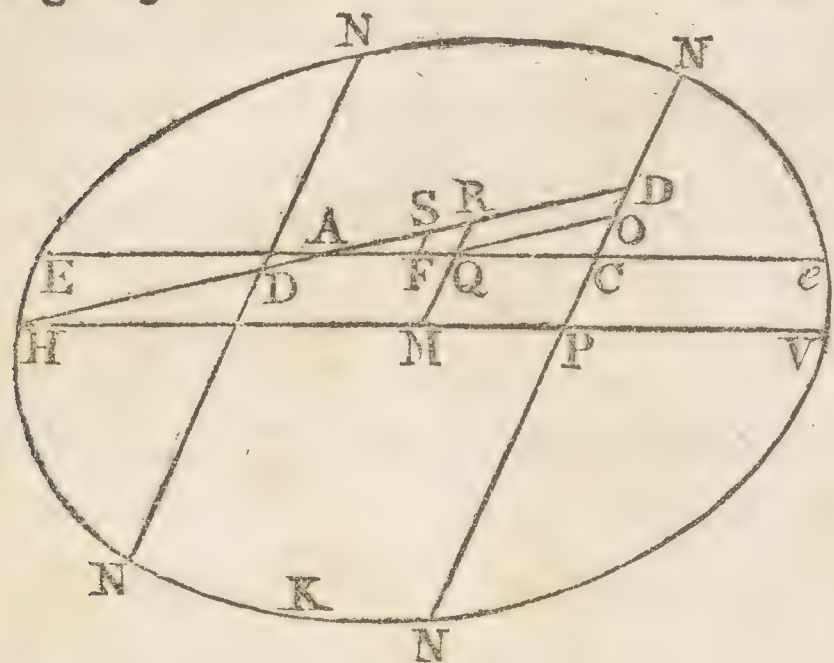
A specimen
of the de-
monstration
of these
examples.

143. We may observe here, that the equations expressing the properties of the curves described in these Examples, or Problems, ought to be the same with the equations proposed to be constructed, when the operations are truly performed; and therefore may serve as a demonstration of the method itself.

This

This I have purposely omitted to do, to avoid being too prolix. However, to give a short specimen of it, I shall take the constructions of Example XIII. and of Problem VIII.

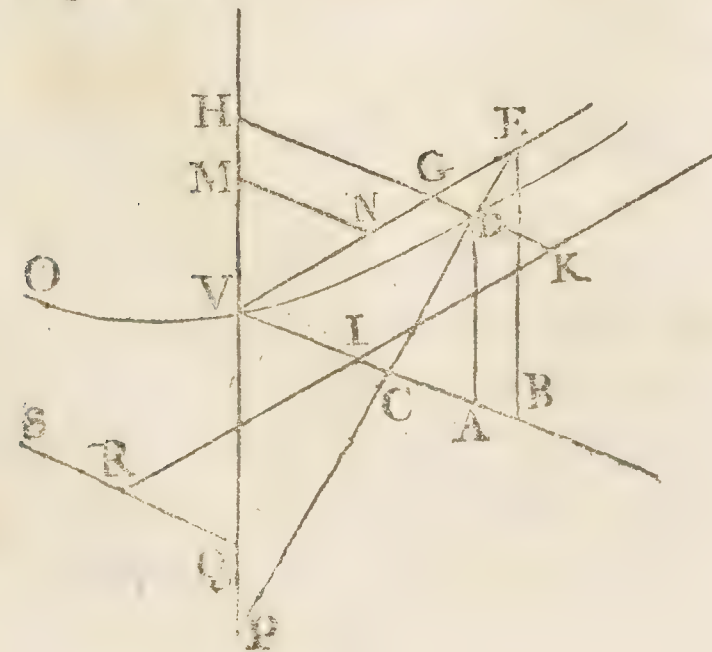
Fig. 65.



And, first, for the example. Having made $AD = x$, and it being $AS = 2a$, $AF = f$, it will be $AC = \frac{fx}{2a}$, and therefore $AR = \frac{bn}{2m}$; it will be $AQ = \frac{bfm}{4am}$, and thence $QC = \frac{fx}{2a} - \frac{bfm}{4am} = MP$. Therefore, the femidiameter being $HM = \frac{ef}{2a}$, we shall have $HP = \frac{ef + fx}{2a} - \frac{bfm}{4am}$, and $PV = \frac{ef}{2a} - \frac{fx}{2a} + \frac{bfm}{4am}$.

Thus, because $DN = y$, $CD = \frac{bx}{2a}$, $CP = QM = \frac{1}{2}c$, it will be $PN = y + \frac{bx}{2a} + \frac{1}{2}c$. But, by the property of the ellipse, it must be $HP \times PV \cdot PNq :: HV \cdot \text{parameter} = \frac{4aem}{fn}$. Thence we shall have the equation $\frac{eeff - ffx}{4aa} + \frac{ffbnx}{4aam} - \frac{ffbhnm}{16aamm}$ into $\frac{4aam}{ffn} = \frac{1}{4}cc + \frac{bcx}{2a} + \frac{bbxx}{4aa} + cy + \frac{bxy}{a} + yy$. And, instead of ee , restoring it's value $\frac{ccmm + 4agmn + nnbb}{4mm}$, it will be $\frac{1}{4}cc + ag - \frac{mxx}{n} + bx = \frac{1}{4}cc + \frac{bcx}{2a} + \frac{bbxx}{4aa} + cy + \frac{bxy}{a} + yy$. And lastly, restoring the values of $-\frac{m}{n} = \frac{bb - 4aa}{4aa}$, and $b = \frac{bc - 2al}{2a}$, we shall have $ag - xx - lx = cy + \frac{bxy}{a} + yy$, which is the very equation proposed to be constructed.

Fig. 90.



In the construction of the last Problem it was $\frac{aacdh - aaddb}{e^3} \times \frac{f}{e}$ the constant rectangle of the hyperbola, and $VI = \frac{aeb - adb}{ee}$, and parallel to the asymptote RS. Also, it will be $RI = \frac{adf}{ce}$. But, because of similar triangles VMN, VHG, it is $VM \cdot VN :: VH \cdot GV$, and therefore

therefore $GV = \frac{fy}{e} = IK$. Then $RK = \frac{adf}{ee} + \frac{fy}{e}$. But $HG = \frac{by}{e}$,
 $GK = VI = \frac{aeb - adb}{ee}$. Whence $HK = \frac{bey + aeb - adb}{ee}$. But $HD = VA$
 $= x$; then it will be $KD = \frac{bey + aeb - adb - eex}{ee}$, and therefore, by the pro-
 perty of the curve, the rectangle $RK \times KD$ ought to be equal to the constant
 rectangle, or $\frac{adf + efy}{ee} \times \frac{bey + aeb - adb - eex}{ee} = \frac{aaedb - aaddh}{e^3} \times \frac{f}{e}$. That is,
 $yy - \frac{exy}{b} + ay - \frac{adx}{b} = 0$, as it ought to be.

If the same care and industry were used in every Example and Problem, it
 would sufficiently prove the method of solution to be just.

S E C T. IV.

Of Solid Problems and their Equations.

What are the
 roots of equa-
 tions.

144. Any one of those quantities is called the Root of an Equation, which,
 being substituted in the equation instead of that root or letter, according to
 which the equation is ordered, (or instead of that letter which represents the
 unknown quantity,) shall make all the terms of the equation to vanish or
 become nothing. Or, which is the same thing, the root of an equation is each
 of the several values of the unknown quantity, or of that letter which performs
 the office of an unknown quantity in the equation.

Therefore the roots of the equation $xx - ax + bx - ab = 0$ will be two,
 one of which is a , the other $-b$; for each of these, being substituted instead
 of x , will make the terms of the equation to vanish; or, because either a or
 $-b$ are the values of the letter x in the proposed equation. The roots of the
 equation $x^4 - x^3 - 19x^2 + 49x - 30 = 0$ will be 1, 2, 3, or -5 ; be-
 cause any one of these numbers, being substituted instead of x , will make all
 the terms to vanish, and therefore any one of them is the root, or value of the
 unknown quantity x . The roots of the equation $x^4 - bbxx - aabb - a^4 = 0$
 will be $+\sqrt{-aa}$, $-\sqrt{-aa}$, $+\sqrt{aa+bb}$, $-\sqrt{aa+bb}$; and so of
 all others.

145. Again,

145. Again, in another sense, those equations are used to be taken for the roots of an equation, which are formed by subtracting, one by one, the positive values from the unknown quantity, or by adding the negative value, and making them equal to nothing. Therefore, in this sense, the roots of the equation $xx - ax + bx - ab = 0$ will be $x - a = 0$, and $x + b = 0$. Those of the equation $x^4 - x^3 - 19x^2 + 49x - 30 = 0$ will be $x - 1 = 0$, $x - 2 = 0$, $x - 3 = 0$, and $x + 5 = 0$. And so of others. And, in this sense, it is said, that every equation is the product of all its roots, because, being continually multiplied into one another, they will exactly produce the given equation, or that of which they are the roots. Hence it is, that the roots of an equation will be so many, including also the imaginary roots, as is the degree to which the equation arises. And therefore a quadratick equation will have two roots, a cubick equation three roots, a biquadratick four roots; and so on.

If $x + a = 0$ be multiplied into $x + b = 0$, there will arise the quadratick equation (I.) $xx + ax + ab = 0$.
 $+ bx$

And if this again be multiplied into $x - c = 0$, there will arise the cubick equation (II.) $x^3 + ax^2 + abx - abc = 0$.
 $+ bx^2 - acx$
 $- cx^2 - bcx$

And if this again be multiplied into $x + d = 0$, it will produce the biquadratick equation (III.) $x^4 + ax^3 + abx^2 - abcx - abcd = 0$.
 $+ bx^3 - acx^2 + abdx$
 $- cx^3 + adx^2 - acdx$
 $+ dx^3 - bcx^2 - bcdx$
 $+ bdx^2$
 $- cdx^2$

Thus, if $x + \sqrt{ab} = 0$ be multiplied into $x - \sqrt{ab} = 0$, the product will be $xx - ab = 0$; and if this be multiplied into $x + c = 0$, it will make $x^3 + cx^2 - abx - abc = 0$; and again, if this be multiplied into $x + c = 0$, it will make $x^4 + 2cx^3 - abx^2 - 2abcx - abcc = 0$.
 $+ ccx^2$

If $x + \sqrt{-ab} = 0$ be multiplied into $x - \sqrt{-ab} = 0$, and then into $x + a = 0$, it will produce the cubick equation $x^3 + ax^2 + abx + aab = 0$.

146. Therefore, if we had the means of knowing what were the values of Equations all, or of any of the unknown quantities of an equation, we might always divide it by so many simple equations as are those known values, by adding the negative values to the unknown quantity, and subtracting the positive. Whence the first equation before will be divisible by $x + a$, and by $x + b$. The second,

second, by $x + a$, $x + b$, and $x - c$. The third, by $x + a$, $x + b$, $x - c$, $x + d$. By this, compound equations will be reduced to so many simple equations as is the number of the roots, if all be known; or may be depressed by so many degrees as is the number of the known roots, if they be not all known. So that, for instance, an equation of the fifth degree may be reduced to one of the fourth, if one of it's roots be known; or to the third, if two roots be known; and so on.

Hence is known the nature or formation of the several co-efficients.

147. From the method by which equations are produced, (which equations are always understood to be reduced to nothing, and in which the greatest term in respect of the unknown quantity, or in respect of that letter by which the terms are ordered, must be positive and free from a co-efficient,) it is easy to perceive that the co-efficient of the unknown letter, or that by which the equation is ordered, in the second term is the sum of all the roots of the equation affected with contrary signs; the co-efficient of the third term is the sum of all the products of all the pairs of roots which can be formed; the co-efficient of the fourth term is the sum of all the products of all the ternaries or threes; and so on to the last or constant term, which is the product of all the roots multiplied continually into one another.

When the second term will be wanting.

148. Hence it may be inferred, that the sum of the positive roots must necessarily be equal to the sum of all the negative roots, in all such equations in which the second term is wanting: and that the sum of the positive roots is greater than the sum of the negative, when the second term is affected with a negative sign; and contrarily, when it is affected with a positive sign.

How the absence of a term is to be denoted.

149. When any term is wanting in an equation, it is usual to supply it's place by an asterisk *; as in $x^4 * + axx - b^3x + a^4 = 0$, the second term is wanting. In $x^4 - ax^3 * - b^3x + a^4$, the third term is wanting; and so in others.

Surd roots and imaginary roots always proceed by pairs.

150. If an equation have no term affected by an imaginary quantity, either it's roots shall be all real, or, if it have any imaginary roots, they shall always be even in number, and equal two by two; only with this difference, that one must be affirmative and the other negative. For, because the second term is the sum of all the roots, if this be present in the equation, when the imaginary roots do not destroy one another, two by two, with contrary signs, some imaginary root must necessarily be in the co-efficient, which is contrary to the supposition. Now, if the second term be wanting, it must needs follow, that the sum of the positive roots is equal to the sum of the negative, and consequently the sum of the positive imaginary roots must be equal to the sum of the negative imaginary roots, otherwise they cannot destroy one another in the manner aforesaid. Wherefore equations, whose degree is an odd number, will necessarily have one real root at least; and those of an even degree may have all

all their roots imaginary or impossible. For the same reason, we may make like conclusions about surd roots. That is to say, if the equation have no surd or irrational terms in it, its roots will either be all rational, or the irrational roots will be in even numbers, and will be equal two by two, but with contrary signs.

151. There are equations which have all their roots positive, others have all their roots negative, others have both positive and negative. So some have all their roots imaginary, others have all real, and lastly, others have both real and imaginary. Various rules are given by writers of Algebra, to determine in any given equation the number of positive and negative roots, also of real and imaginary roots. But, because these rules and their demonstrations are very perplexed and prolix, and of but little use, I shall here omit them, thinking it sufficient to take notice, first, that if all the roots be negative, all the terms of the equation will be positive. For, in this case, since all the terms of the simple equations are positive, that is, of all the roots taken in the second sense, § 145, from whence the proposed equation is supposed to be produced, all the products will also be positive. Secondly, that if all the roots be positive, the terms of the equation will be positive and negative alternately. For the first term will always be positive by supposition. The second term will be negative, because it contains the sum of all the roots, which being positive, will be negative in the simple equations. The third term, containing the ternaries or products of all the pairs, will be positive. And so on. And therefore an equation composed of positive and negative signs alternately, will have all its roots positive.

Affections of
the roots how
distinguished.

Whence, if the terms of an equation shall not have all their signs positive, or shall not have them positive and negative alternately, there will be both positive and negative roots. It shall also be another sure proof, that the equation contains both positive and negative roots, if there be any term wanting; for no term can be absent, but that the products of which it is formed must destroy one another by contrary signs; that is, there must be both affirmative and negative roots. This observation will assist us in its proper place, among the many divisors of the last term of an equation, to select those only by which the division is to be attempted. Because, if the equation shall have only positive roots, it would be of no use to try the division by positive divisors; and if it shall have only negative roots, it would be needless to try by negative divisors. And the trials must be made by each of them, when there are both positive and negative roots.

But all this must be understood of such equations in which all the roots are real; for where there are imaginary roots the rule does not obtain. For example, let the equation be $x^3 + bx^2 + aax + aab = 0$, in which all the terms are positive, and yet the roots are one positive and two negative, that is, $x = -b$, a real root, and $x = \pm \sqrt{-aa}$, two imaginary or impossible roots, one positive, the other negative.

152. Equations

Affections of the roots of equations of the third or fourth degree.

152. Equations of the third and fourth degree, in which the second term is wanting, if the third term be affected with the positive sign, will certainly have imaginary roots; for, if all the roots were real, the third term could not but be affected with the negative sign; the reason of which is, that in cubick equations, when the second term is wanting, the sum of the positive roots is equal to the sum of the negative, and therefore either one positive is equal to two negative, or two positive roots are equal to the one negative. Let the three roots, for instance, be represented by a , b , and $-c$, or else by $-a$, $-b$, and $+c$; then the co-efficient of the third term will be $ab - ac - bc$. But, on supposition that the second term is wanting, it will be $a + b = c$. Therefore ac will be greater than ab , and consequently $ab - ac - bc$ will be a negative quantity.

Now, in equations of the fourth degree, there may be either three positive roots and one negative, as $+a$, $+b$, $+c$, and $-d$; or there may be three negatives and one affirmative, as $-a$, $-b$, $-c$, and $+d$; or there may be two negatives and two affirmative, as $-a$, $-b$, $+c$, and $+d$. In the first and second case, the co-efficient of the third term will be $ab + ac + bc - ad - bd - cd$. But, by supposition, it ought to be $a + b + c = d$, so that ad will be greater than ab , cd than ac , bd than bc ; and therefore $ad + bd + cd$ will be greater than $ab + ac + bc$, and consequently the third term will be negative. In the third case, the co-efficient of the third term will be $ab - ac - bc - ad - bd + cd$, and it ought to be $a + b = c + d$. Here, if we make $m = a + b = c + d$, it will be $mm = \overline{a+b} \times \overline{c+d} = ac + ad + bc + bd$, and $mm = \overline{a+b}^2 = aa + 2ab + bb$, and also $mm = \overline{c+d}^2 = cc + 2cd + dd$. Therefore it is $ab = \frac{mm - aa - bb}{2}$, and $cd = \frac{mm - cc - dd}{2}$, and $ab + cd = mm - \frac{aa + bb + cc + dd}{2}$. Therefore mm is greater than $ab + cd$, and $ac + ad + bc + bd$ will be greater than $ab + cd$. Whence the co-efficient of the third term will be negative.

The positive roots may be made to become negative, and vice versa.

153. It is always in our power, in any equation, to make all the positive roots to become negative, and the negative to become positive. Nothing more is required to perform this, than to change all the signs which are in even places, that is, in the second, the fourth, the sixth, &c.; the reason of which is, that the second term being the sum of all the roots, in this therefore are the negative with a positive sign, and the positive with a negative sign, as has been plainly seen at § 145. In forming equations, compounded of the products of simple equations, by changing the signs they also will be changed. The other even terms in order are formed from the products of an odd number of roots, that is, the fourth from three, the sixth from five, &c. Wherefore, if they have the positive sign, they will be formed from the product of all the negative roots, or from an even number of positive roots, and an odd number

of negative roots. And if they have a negative sign, they will be formed from the product of all the positive roots, or an even number of negative roots, and an odd number of positive roots. Therefore, by changing the signs of all the even terms, the positive roots will become negative, and on the contrary.

As to the odd terms in order, they being formed of even products of roots, if they have the positive sign, they will be formed either of an even number of negative roots alone, or of an even number of positive roots alone, or of an even number of positive, or an even number of negative together. Wherefore, by changing these reciprocally, the signs of the terms themselves will not be changed. Now, if they have a negative sign, they will be formed of the product of an odd number of positive roots, into an odd number of negative. Wherefore, by these also reciprocally, the sign of the terms themselves will not be changed, and therefore they must be left as they are.

The equation $x^3 + ax^2 + abx - abc = 0$ has three roots. Two are

$$\begin{array}{l} + bx^2 - acx \\ - cx^2 - bcx \end{array}$$

negative, *viz.* $-a$, $-b$, or otherwise, $x + a = 0$, $x + b = 0$, and one is positive, *viz.* $+c$, or otherwise, $x - c = 0$. By changing the signs of those terms which in the order of the equation are even, it will become

$x^3 - cx^2 + abx + abc = 0$, and the positive roots will be $x - a = 0$,

$$\begin{array}{l} - bx^2 - acx \\ + cx^2 - bcx \end{array}$$

$x - b = 0$, and the negative root will be $x + c = 0$. It is of no moment whether or no any term be wanting, because in this case the asterism supplies the vacancy, and then the same rule obtains. Thus, in the equation $x^3 * - 28x + 48 = 0$, the affirmative roots of which are $x - 2 = 0$, $x - 4 = 0$, and the negative root is $x + 6 = 0$. By changing the signs of the even terms in order, it will be $x^3 * - 28x - 48 = 0$, the negative roots of which are $x + 2 = 0$, $x + 4 = 0$, and the affirmative root is $x - 6 = 0$.

154. Any equation being given, by means of congruous substitutions it is easy to increase or diminish all its roots, though yet unknown, by any given quantity; that is, it may be transformed into another equation, the roots of which shall be the same as those of the proposed equation, but increased or diminished by some given quantity. Let the unknown quantity of the equation be put equal to a new unknown quantity, adding or subtracting the given quantity; adding, if we would have it increased, or subtracting, if we would have it diminished. Then, in the proposed equation, instead of the unknown quantity and its powers, their values must be substituted, expressed by the other unknown quantity and the given constant quantity; from whence another equation will arise, the roots of which will be such as are required. Let the equation be $x^4 + 4x^3 - 19x^2 - 106x - 120 = 0$, the roots of which we

U

would

would have increased by the number 3. Make $x + 3 = y$, whence $x = y - 3$, $x^2 = y^2 - 6y + 9$, $x^3 = y^3 - 9y^2 + 27y - 27$, and $x^4 = y^4 - 12y^3 + 54y^2 - 108y + 81$; therefore, in the proposed equation, substituting these values instead of x and it's powers, it will be transformed into this other equation,

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} y^4 - 12y^3 + 54y^2 - 108y + 81 \\ + 4y^3 - 36y^2 + 108y - 108 \\ - 19y^2 + 114y - 171 \\ - 106y + 318 \\ - 120 \end{array} \right\} = 0; \text{ that is, } y^4 - 8y^3 - y^2 + 8y = 0;$$

and dividing by y , it is $y^3 - 8y^2 - y + 8 = 0$, in which it is plain, that the roots will be greater than the roots of the proposed equation by the number 3; because it was made $y = x + 3$, and therefore the root y will be equal to every value of x increased by 3. And here it may be observed, that, in thus increasing the roots, the positive are increased by such a quantity, but the negative are diminished by the same quantity; for, by adding a positive to a negative, if the negative be greater than the positive, it will become less in it's kind than at first; if they be equal, it becomes nothing, if it be less, it makes it positive. Whence, in the proposed equation $x^4 + 4x^3 - 19x^2 - 106x - 120 = 0$, the roots of which (though they cannot be found by the methods hitherto taught,) are $+ 5$, $- 2$, $- 4$, $- 3$, that is, $x - 5 = 0$, $x + 2 = 0$, $x + 4 = 0$, $x + 3 = 0$; one of which is affirmative, the other negative; as I desired to increase them by the number 3, in the transformed equation $y^3 - 8y^2 - y + 8 = 0$, they ought to be $+ 8$, $+ 1$, $- 1$, that is, $y - 8 = 0$, $y - 1 = 0$, $y + 1 = 0$, and are really such. And that which should correspond to the fourth is $= 0$, because $- 3 + 3 = 0$. And, for this reason, the reduced equation is only of three dimensions, though the proposed equation is of four.

On the contrary, when the roots of an equation are to be diminished by a given quantity, for the same reason the negative roots are increased in their kind by the same quantity, but the positive may become nothing, if the given quantity be equal to them, and negative if greater. In the same equation $x^4 + 4x^3 - 19x^2 - 106x - 120 = 0$, if I should desire to diminish the roots by the number 3, I must make $x - 3 = y$, and therefore $x = y + 3$, $x^2 = y^2 + 6y + 9$, $x^3 = y^3 + 9y^2 + 27y + 27$, $x^4 = y^4 + 12y^3 + 54y^2 + 108y + 81$. And therefore, making the substitutions, the equation will be

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} y^4 + 12y^3 + 54y^2 + 108y + 81 \\ + 4y^3 + 36y^2 + 108y + 108 \\ - 19y^2 - 114y - 171 \\ - 106y - 318 \\ - 120 \end{array} \right\} = 0. \text{ That is, } y^4 + 16y^3 + 71y^2$$

$- 4y - 420 = 0$. And, because the roots of the proposed equation are $+ 5$, $- 2$, $- 3$, $- 4$, that is, $x - 5 = 0$, $x + 2 = 0$, $x + 3 = 0$, $x + 4 = 0$; those of the transformed equation ought to be $+ 2$, $- 5$, $- 6$, $- 7$,

— 7, that is, $y - 2 = 0$, $y + 5 = 0$, $y + 6 = 0$, $y + 7 = 0$, as they really are.

Let the equation be $x^3 + cx^2 - bbx - bbc = 0$, and we desire to increase the roots by a given quantity a . Make $x + a = y$, and therefore $x = y - a$, $x^2 = y^2 - 2ay + aa$, $x^3 = y^3 - 3ay^2 + 3aay - a^3$. Wherefore, making the substitutions, the equation will be

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} y^3 - 3ay^2 + 3a^2y - a^3 \\ + cy^2 - 2acy + a^2c \\ - bby + abb \\ - bbc \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

The roots of this are greater than those of the proposed equation by the quantity a . And, in fact, the roots of the proposed equation are $x - b = 0$, $x + b = 0$, $x + c = 0$; but the roots of this are $y - b + a = 0$, $y + b - a = 0$, and $y + c - a = 0$.

155. In like manner, if an equation be given, we may transform it into another, the roots of which are the same as those of the proposed equation, but multiplied or divided by a given quantity, suppose f ; making a substitution of $fx = y$, (x being the unknown quantity of the given equation,) if

Or the roots may be multiplied or divided at pleasure.

we would have it multiplied; or of $\frac{x}{f} = y$, if we would have it divided.

Thus, also, we may make $x = \frac{gy}{f}$, if we desire that the roots of the transformed equation should have to those of the proposed equation the ratio of f to g . And we may make $\sqrt{fx} = y$, if we would have them to be mean proportionals between the quantity f , and the roots of the proposed equation.

In like manner, we may make $x = \frac{1}{y}$, if we desire they may be reciprocals, &c.

156. The reason of these rules is evident. For, assuming the first case, that of increasing the roots, if we make the substitution of $x + a = y$, the values of y extracted from the transformed equation will be equal to $x + a$, or equal to the values of x in the proposed equation increased by the quantity a . And by a like analogy in the other cases.

The reason of these operations.

157. Many are the uses that may be made of these substitutions; one of which may be, that not having as yet a method of knowing what are the roots of the proposed equation, by transforming it after some one of the aforementioned manners, we may discover the roots of the transformed equation; which being increased, diminished, multiplied, divided, &c. by the constant quantity, according as the substitution is made, we shall also know the roots of the proposed equation.

And their uses.

Equations
may be freed
from fractions
or surds.

158. Another use may be, to free equations, whenever we please, from fractions, and very often from surds. As to fractions, we must make the unknown quantity of the equation equal to some new unknown quantity, divided by the least quantity that is divisible by every one of the denominators of the terms of the equation; which shall be the product of the same, in case that those denominators are prime to each other. Then making the substitutions, and reducing the terms to a common denominator, we shall have another equation which will be free from fractions, the roots of which will be those of the proposed equation, multiplied into the quantity by which the new unknown quantity was at first divided. Let the equation be $y^3 + \frac{1}{6}ay^2 - \frac{1}{3}aby + aab = 0$; if we make $y = \frac{1}{6}z$, $y^2 = \frac{1}{36}z^2$, $y^3 = \frac{1}{216}z^3$, then, by substitution, the equation will become $\frac{z^3}{216} + \frac{az^2}{6 \times 36} - \frac{abz}{3 \times 6} + aab = 0$. And, reducing to a common denominator, it will be $z^3 + az^2 - 12abz + 216aab = 0$. The roots of this equation divided by 6 will be the roots of the equation proposed.

Let the equation be $x^3 - \frac{ax^2}{b} + \frac{aax}{c} + \frac{a^3}{d} = 0$. Make $x = \frac{z}{bcd}$, and, substituting in the equation, it will be transformed into this, $\frac{z^3}{b^3c^3d^3} - \frac{az^2}{b^3c^2d^2} + \frac{aaz}{bc^2d} + \frac{a^3}{d} = 0$. Then reducing to a common denominator, it will be $z^3 - acdz^2 + a^2b^2cd^2z + a^3b^3c^3d^2 = 0$. Wherefore, if the value of z were known, the value of x would be known also. In like manner, to free equations from surds, we may often proceed thus. Make the unknown quantity equal to a new unknown quantity divided by the radical, and substitute this in the equation. Let the equation be $x^3 - \sqrt{3} \times x^2 + \frac{26}{27}x - \frac{8}{27\sqrt{3}} = 0$. Make $x = \frac{z}{\sqrt{3}}$, and therefore $x^2 = \frac{z^2}{3}$, $x^3 = \frac{z^3}{3\sqrt{3}}$; and, making the substitutions, it will be $\frac{z^3}{3\sqrt{3}} - \frac{z^2\sqrt{3}}{3} + \frac{26z}{27\sqrt{3}} - \frac{8}{27\sqrt{3}} = 0$. Now, multiplying by $3\sqrt{3}$, it will be $z^3 - 3z^2 + \frac{26}{9}z - \frac{8}{9} = 0$. Lastly, by freeing this from fractions after the foregoing manner, that is, making $z = \frac{1}{9}y$, or rather, $z = \frac{1}{3}y$, which in this case will be more compendious, the equation will be $y^3 - 9y^2 + 26y - 24 = 0$. And because, by the first substitution, it is $x = \frac{z}{\sqrt{3}}$, and, by the second, $z = \frac{1}{3}y$, it will be $x = \frac{y}{3\sqrt{3}}$; or the value of x will be equal to the value of y divided by $3\sqrt{3}$.

Let the equation be $x^4 - x^3\sqrt[3]{nn} + px^2\sqrt[3]{n} - qx + \frac{r}{\sqrt[3]{n}} = 0$. Make $x = \frac{y}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$, and therefore $xx = \frac{yy}{\sqrt[3]{nn}}$, $x^3 = \frac{y^3}{n}$, $x^4 = \frac{y^4}{n\sqrt[3]{n}}$; and making the substitutions,

stitutions, it will be $\frac{y^4}{n\sqrt[3]{n}} - \frac{y^3\sqrt[3]{nn}}{n} + \frac{pyy\sqrt[3]{n}}{\sqrt[3]{nn}} - \frac{qy}{\sqrt[3]{n}} + \frac{r}{\sqrt[3]{n}} = 0$. And multiplying by $n\sqrt[3]{n}$, it will be $y^4 - ny^3 + npy^2 - nqy + rn = 0$. If we would observe the law of homogeneity, equations may be delivered from radicals: but then fractions would thence arise, which must be reduced as above.

159. Because, by taking away radicals by means of the foregoing substitutions, nothing else is done than multiplying the roots of the equation by that radical, it is easy to perceive, that if the radical be quadratick, for example \sqrt{n} , it is necessary, in order to expunge it out of the equation, that the second term of the equation proposed shall contain \sqrt{n} . For, as that term is the aggregate of all the roots of the equation, it must be multiplied by \sqrt{n} . It will be necessary that the third term should not contain \sqrt{n} , because, as it is the aggregate of the pairs of the roots of the equation, it must be multiplied by the square of \sqrt{n} . Thus it will be necessary that the fourth should contain \sqrt{n} , because, as it is the aggregate of all the ternaries, or products of three roots, it must consequently be multiplied by $n\sqrt{n}$. It will also be necessary that the fifth term should not contain the radical; and so on alternately. For the same reason, if the radical to be taken away were $\sqrt[3]{n}$, it will be necessary, that in the second term of the proposed equation there should be found $\sqrt[3]{nn}$, in the third $\sqrt[3]{n}$, in the fourth none at all, in the fifth $\sqrt[3]{nn}$, in the sixth $\sqrt[3]{n}$, in the seventh none at all, &c. And the like is to be concluded of other radicals.

160. By means of these substitutions we may also take away the second term from any equation. And that will be done by putting the unknown quantity equal to a new unknown quantity, adding or subtracting the coefficient of the second term divided by the index of the degree of the equation given: that is, adding, if the second term have the negative sign, and subtracting, if that sign be positive. Let the equation be $x^2 + ax - bb = 0$; put $x = z - \frac{1}{2}a$, and, by substitution, it will become

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} z^2 - az + \frac{1}{4}aa \\ + az - \frac{1}{2}aa \\ - bb \end{array} \right\} = 0. \text{ That is,}$$

$zz * - \frac{1}{4}aa - bb = 0$, or $zz = \frac{1}{4}aa + bb$. Hence it may be seen, how all affected quadratick equations may be resolved more expeditiously in this manner, than by that before taught at § 74. Then, only subtracting $\frac{1}{2}a$ from the value of z so found, we shall have the value of x .

Let the equation be $x^3 + bx^2 - abx - a^3 = 0$. Make $x = z - \frac{1}{3}b$, and, by substitution, it will be

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} z^3 * - \frac{1}{3}bbz + \frac{2}{27}b^3 \\ - abz + \frac{1}{3}abb \\ - a^3 \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

Whence, taking $\frac{1}{3}b$ from the value of z , we shall have the value of x .

Let

Let the equation be $x^4 - 2ax^3 + 2aaxx - 2a^3x + a^4 = 0$. Make
 $- ccxx$

$x = z + \frac{2a}{4}$, or $x = z + \frac{1}{2}a$. Then, by substitution, it will be

$$\left. \begin{aligned} z^4 * + \frac{1}{2}aaz^2 - a^3z + \frac{1}{16}a^4 \\ - ccz^2 - accz - \frac{1}{4}aacc \end{aligned} \right\} = 0.$$
 Then add $\frac{1}{2}a$ to the value of z , and we shall have the value of x .

Or the third term may be taken away.

161. And thus we may take away the third term from any equation, proceeding after the following manner.

Let the equation be $x^4 - 3ax^3 + 3aax^2 - 5a^3x - 2a^4 = 0$. Make $x = y - b$, where b is a general quantity, to be determined as occasion may require. Now, making the substitutions, it will be

$$\left. \begin{aligned} y^4 - 4by^3 + 6bby^2 - 4b^3y + b^4 \\ - 3ay^3 + 9aby^2 - 9ab^2y + 3ab^3 \\ + 3aay^2 - 6a^2by + 3a^2b^2 \\ - 5a^3y + 5a^3b \\ - 2a^4 \end{aligned} \right\} = 0.$$
 Now, in this equation, that

the third term may be nothing, it is necessary that $6bby^2 + 9aby^2 + 3aay^2 = 0$, that is, $b^2 + \frac{3}{2}ab + \frac{1}{2}aa = 0$; and therefore $b = -\frac{3}{4}a \pm \frac{1}{4}a$. Hence we are informed, that the substitution to be made instead of $y - b$, is either $y + \frac{1}{2}a$, or $y + a$; for, indeed, either the one or the other takes away the third term, making the equation $y^4 - ay^3 * - \frac{1}{4}a^3y - \frac{6}{16}a^4 = 0$, or, secondly, $y^4 + ay^3 * - 4a^3y - 6a^4 = 0$.

By this artifice it may be known, that, to take away the second term, we must make such substitutions as have been shown at § 160.

Or the last but one, if the second be wanting.

162. Now if an equation, in which the second term is wanting, is to be transformed into another, in which the last term but one shall be absent, it will be sufficient to substitute any given quantity, divided by a new unknown quantity, instead of the unknown quantity of the equation. Let the equation be

$x^4 * + aax^2 - a^3x + a^4 = 0$, and make $x = \frac{aa}{y}$. By substitution, it will

be $\frac{a^2}{y^4} * + \frac{a^6}{y^2} - \frac{a^5}{y} + a^4 = 0$. And reducing this to a common denominator, and dividing by a^4 , it will be $y^4 - ay^3 + aay^2 * + a^4 = 0$. In the substitution of $x = \frac{aa}{y}$, instead of the given quantity a , if we had taken any other, we should have arrived at the same conclusion, but then the transformed equation would have involved fractions.

163. If,

163. If, in the proposed equation, not the second term, but the third, or fourth, &c. should be wanting, by the same method we might make that term to vanish, which is equally distant from the last term, as the absent term is distant from the first. Or any other on a certain condition.

164. And on the contrary, if one or more terms be wanting in an equation, we may always make it compleat, by taking a new unknown quantity, *plus* or *minus* some known quantity, and making it equal to the unknown quantity of the equation, and then the transformed equation will have all it's terms compleat. Moreover, if we would have the transformed equation to be of a superior degree, let every term of the proposed equation be multiplied by such a power of the unknown quantity, by which we would have the degree to be increased, and then the substitution may be made. Thus, the equation $x^4 - a^4 = 0$ being given, if we would have it to be changed into another which is compleat, and of the sixth degree, let it be made $x^6 - a^4x^2 = 0$, and then making the substitution of $x = z \pm a$, (where by a is understood any known quantity,) and we shall have the equation required. The calculation, for brevity, is omitted. Or an equation may be completed or raised higher.

165. When equations are reduced to such a form, as that they have their greatest term positive, and without a co-efficient except unity; that they may be free from fractions and surds, and compared to nothing, in order to judge whether the problem proposed be of that degree as is shown by the equation, we must examine whether it have a divisor of one, of two, or more dimensions, by which, being divided, it may be reduced to a lower degree. For the problem is properly of that degree to which the equation may be reduced, and not of the degree of the first equation. If a cubick equation have a divisor of one dimension, by being divided by that, it may be reduced to two dimensions; and the two roots of this, (which will be had by the rules delivered at § 73, 74,) and the divisor, will be the three roots of the proposed equation. Whence the problem, which has brought us to such an equation, is not really cubical but plane, and may be constructed by ruler and compasses only, that is, by right lines and circles. If an equation of the fourth degree have two divisors of one dimension, and if it be divided by them, it will be reduced to two dimensions; the roots of which, together with the two divisors, will be the four roots of the proposed equation, and therefore the problem will be plane. After the same manner, if it have one divisor of two dimensions, another of two dimensions will be the quotient, the roots of which, together with the roots of the divisor, will be the four roots of the proposed equation, and therefore the problem is plane. Further, if it have one divisor only of one dimension, the reduced equation will be of three, and the problem will be solid indeed, but of the third degree only, and not of the fourth as it seemed to be. If an equation of the fifth degree shall have three divisors of one dimension, or one of one and one of two, (which is the same case as if it had two of two dimensions, because Problems are often reduced to a lower degree by division.

then it will necessarily have one of one dimension also,) it will be reduced to two dimensions, and therefore the five roots may be had, and the problem will be plane. If it have only one of one dimension, it will be reduced to the fourth degree, and the problem will be of the same degree. If it shall have two of one dimension, or one of two, it will be reduced to the third degree, and the problem will be of the same. And the like of others. The manner of finding divisors of one dimension has been taught before, at § 56.

And some-
times by
compound
divisors.

166. But besides, as equations may have divisors of two or more dimensions, whether rational or irrational, we may operate with them in like manner, and, by a like way of reasoning, we must attempt the division of the proposed equation; but, first, having tried the division, by divisors of one dimension, which ought always to precede, whatever the equation may be.

How equa-
tions of the
fourth degree
may often be
reduced by
two quadra-
tick divisors.

167. The manner of finding these divisors for equations of the fourth degree may be this following. For those of the third degree are either irreducible, or may be reduced by a rational and linear divisor, being free from radicals, as is here supposed.

Admitting, then, that the equation of the fourth degree is not reducible by a divisor of one dimension only; let the second term be taken away (§ 160.), and, for example's sake, let there be produced this equation, $x^4 - 17aax^2 - 20a^3x - 6a^4 = 0$. Let this be supposed equal to the product of these two equations of the second degree, $x^2 + yx + z = 0$, and $x^2 - yx + u = 0$, in which y, z, u , are general quantities, which are to be determined afterwards as occasion may require; and z and u may have any sign. The product of these two equations will be $x^4 + zx^2 - yzx + uz = 0$. Now let this

$$\begin{array}{r} - yx^2 + yux \\ + ux^2 \end{array}$$

equation be compared, term by term, with the equation proposed, and, from the comparison of the third terms in each, we shall have $z = -17a^2 + y^2 - u$.

From the comparison of the fourth terms, it will be $u = \frac{-20a^3}{y} + z$; and, instead of z , putting it's value already found, that we may have u expressed

by y only, and known quantities, it will be $u = -\frac{20a^3}{2y} - \frac{17}{2}aa + \frac{1}{2}yy$.

And, putting this value of u in the equation $z = -17aa + yy - u$, we shall have $z = -\frac{17}{2}aa + \frac{1}{2}yy + \frac{20a^3}{2y}$. From the comparison of the last terms,

we shall have $uz = -6a^4$, and, instead of z and u , putting their values expressed by y only, and known quantities, it will be $\frac{282}{4}a^4 - \frac{34}{4}aayy - \frac{400a^6}{4yy} + \frac{1}{4}y^4 = -6a^4$; or, reducing to a common denominator,

$$y^6 -$$

$y^6 - 34a^2y^4 + 289a^4y^2 - 400a^6 = 0$. This transformed equation may be
 $+ 24a^4y^2$

considered as of the third degree, because it involves neither y^5 , nor y^3 , nor y . In this equation, let the divisors of the last term be found, and, because it may be considered as of the third degree, though it is really of the sixth, try if it be divisible by $yy \pm$ these divisors, among which we are to choose those only of two dimensions, as is plain. And it will be found divisible by $yy - 16aa = 0$, whence it will be $yy = 16aa$, and $y = \pm 4a$. This value of y being substituted

in the equations $u = -\frac{20a^3}{2y} - \frac{17}{2}aa + \frac{1}{2}yy$, and $z = \frac{20a^3}{2y} - \frac{17}{2}aa + \frac{1}{2}yy$, we shall have $u = -3aa$, $z = 2aa$. Therefore the two subsidiary equations $x^2 + yx + z = 0$, and $x^2 - yx + u = 0$, must be $x^2 + 4ax + 2aa = 0$, and $x^2 - 4ax - 3aa = 0$, into which the equation $x^4 - 17a^2x^2 - 20a^3x - 6a^4 = 0$ may be resolved, by dividing by either of them.

But the roots of these are (§ 74.) $x = -2a \pm \sqrt{2aa}$ for the first, and $x = 2a \pm \sqrt{7aa}$ for the second; which are therefore the roots of the given equation, being all four real, one positive and three negative.

If the transformed equation should not have any divisor, it would be to no purpose to seek another in this case; for neither would the proposed equation admit of any.

Although in the value of y we have $y = \pm 4a$, yet I have made use of the positive sign only, because it is indifferent whether we take the positive or the negative root, the result being the same in both cases. For, if we put $y = -4a$, it will be $u = 2aa$, $z = -3aa$, and the two equations will be the same as before, that is, $x^2 - 4ax - 3aa = 0$, and $x^2 + 4ax + 2aa = 0$.

Let the equation be $x^4 - 2ax^3 + 2a^2x^2 - 2a^3x + a^4 = 0$. Taking away
 $-ccx^2$

the second term, by the substitution of $x = z + \frac{1}{2}a$, it will be changed into
 $z^4 + \frac{1}{2}a^2z^2 - a^3z + \frac{5}{16}a^4 = 0$. Wherefore, making a comparison of
 $-ccz^2 - ac^2z - \frac{1}{4}a^2c^2$

this with the equation $z^4 + uz^2 - pyz + pu = 0$, which is the product
 $-y^2z^2 + uyz$
 $+ pz^2$

of the two equations $z^2 + yz + p = 0$, and $z^2 - yz + u = 0$; from the comparison of the third terms, as usual, we shall have $p = yy - u + \frac{1}{2}aa - cc$.

From the comparison of the fourth terms, we shall have $u = p \frac{-a^3 + acc}{y}$; or,

instead of p , putting it's value, $u = \frac{1}{2}yy + \frac{1}{4}aa - \frac{1}{2}cc - \frac{a^3 + acc}{2y}$; and there-

fore $p = \frac{1}{2}yy + \frac{1}{4}aa - \frac{1}{2}cc + \frac{a^3 + acc}{y}$. Lastly, from the comparison of the

last terms, we shall have $pu = \frac{5}{16}a^4 - \frac{1}{4}aacc$; or, substituting the values of p and u , it will be $y^6 + aay^4 - a^4y^2 - a^6 - 2ccy^4 + c^4y^2 - 2a^4c^2 - a^2c^4 \} = 0$.

Now the divisors of the last term, meaning those of two dimensions, are aa and $aa + cc$, and the division will succeed by $yy - aa - cc = 0$. Therefore it will be $yy = aa + cc$, and $y = \pm \sqrt{aa + cc}$. Whence $u = \frac{3}{4}aa - \frac{a^3 + ac^2}{2\sqrt{aa + cc}}$, $p = \frac{3}{4}aa + \frac{a^3 + acc}{2\sqrt{aa + cc}}$; and the two equations $z^2 + yz + p = 0$, and $z^2 - yz + u = 0$, will be $zz + z\sqrt{aa + cc} + \frac{3}{4}aa + \frac{a^3 + ac^2}{2\sqrt{aa + cc}} = 0$, and $zz - z\sqrt{aa + cc} + \frac{3}{4}aa - \frac{a^3 + ac^2}{2\sqrt{aa + cc}} = 0$, or $zz + z\sqrt{aa + cc} + \frac{3}{4}aa + \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc} = 0$, and $zz - z\sqrt{aa + cc} + \frac{3}{4}aa - \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc} = 0$.

These two equations, being resolved, will give us four values of z ; $z = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{aa + cc} \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}aa + \frac{1}{4}cc - \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc}}$ from the first equation, and $z = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{aa + cc} \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}aa + \frac{1}{4}cc + \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc}}$ from the second equation. And, because these are the divisors of the equation

$z^4 * + \frac{1}{2}a^2z^2 - a^3z + \frac{5}{16}a^4 - ccz^2 - ac^2z - \frac{1}{4}a^2c^2 \} = 0$, the same roots shall also belong to this equation. And now, making the substitution of $x = \frac{1}{2}a + z$, we shall have $x = \frac{1}{2}a - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{aa + cc} \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}aa + \frac{1}{4}cc - \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc}}$, and $x = \frac{1}{2}a + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{aa + cc} \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}aa + \frac{1}{4}cc + \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc}}$, which are the four roots or values of the proposed equation.

This reduction may be performed by a general canon.

168. But a general formula or canon may be formed, as well for the transformed equation as for the two subsidiary equations, which are assumed in order to obtain the divisors; to which formulas any equation whatever of the fourth degree, in which the second term is wanting, or taken away, may be universally applied. Therefore let there be this general equation $x^4 * \pm px^2 \pm qx \pm r = 0$; and taking the two subsidiary equations, $x^2 + yx + z = 0$, and $x^2 - yx + u = 0$, and finding their product, $x^4 * + zx^2 - yzx + uz = 0$,
 $- yyx^2 + uyx$
 $+ ux^2$

let it be compared, term by term, with the equation proposed. Now, from the comparison of the third terms, we shall have $z = \pm p + yy - u$. From the comparison of the fourth, $u = z \pm \frac{q}{y}$; and, instead of z , it's value being

substituted,

substituted, it will be $u = \pm \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy \pm \frac{q}{2y}$; where it is $+ p$, if in the proposed equation the third term be positive, and $- p$, if negative. And thus also for q , if the fourth term be positive, and $- q$, if negative. And this being put instead of u in the first comparison, we shall have $z = \pm \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy \mp \frac{q}{2y}$; that is, $+ p$, if the third term of the proposed equation be positive, and $- p$, if negative. And, on the contrary, $- q$, if the fourth term be positive, and $+ q$, if negative. From the comparison of the last terms, we shall find $zu = \pm r$, that is, $\pm \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy \pm \frac{q}{y}$ into $\pm \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy \mp \frac{q}{2y} = \pm r$; and, by actual multiplication, and reducing to a common denominator, it will be $y^6 \pm 2py^4 + p^2y^2 - qq \mp 4ry^2 = 0$, the transformed equation, which may

be called cubick; in which it will be $+ 2p$, if the third term of the proposed equation be positive, and $- p$, if negative. And it will be $- 4r$, if the last term of the proposed equation be positive, but $+ 4r$, if negative. In the two subsidiary equations, instead of z and u , if we put their values found before, they will be $xx + yx \pm \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy \mp \frac{q}{2y} = 0$, and $xx - yx \pm \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy \pm \frac{q}{2y} = 0$. Wherefore, if the transformed equation shall be divisible by $yy \pm$ a divisor of two dimensions of the last term, we should have the value of y , which, being substituted in these two last equations, will supply us with divisors of the proposed equation. And if the transformed equation be not divisible, neither will the proposed be so.

Let the given equation be $x^4 - 4a^2x^2 - 8a^3x + 35a^4 = 0$. Comparing this with the canonical equation, it will be $p = 4aa$, $q = 8a^3$, $r = 35a^4$; and therefore the transformed equation will be $y^6 - 8a^2y^4 + 16a^4y^2 - 64a^6 = 0$,
 $- 140a^4y^2$

that is, $y^6 - 8a^2y^4 - 124a^4y^2 - 64a^6 = 0$. And the two subsidiary equations will be $x^2 + yx - 2aa + \frac{1}{2}yy + \frac{4a^3}{y} = 0$, and $x^2 - yx - 2aa + \frac{1}{2}yy - \frac{4a^3}{y} = 0$. Now, finding the divisors of the last term, because the transformed equation is divisible by $yy - 16aa = 0$, we shall have $yy = 16aa$, and thence $y = 4a$; which values, being substituted in the two subsidiary equations, will give $x^2 + 4ax + 7aa = 0$, and $x^2 - 4ax + 5aa = 0$, which are the divisors of the given equation; the four roots of which are $x = -2a \pm \sqrt{-3aa}$, and $x = 2a \pm \sqrt{-aa}$, all imaginary.

Sometimes a biquadratick may be reduced to a quadratick.

169. Sometimes it will be sufficient only to take away the second term of the equation, in order to reduce it to a plane, and so to spare any further operation. Thus, for example, it will be in the equation

$$x^4 + 2cx^3 - 2acx^2 - 2aacx - aacc = 0; \text{ which, because it is not reducible} \\ + ccx^2$$

by any divisor of the last term, if we take away the second term by making

$$x = y - \frac{1}{2}c, \text{ will be changed into this, } \left. \begin{aligned} y^4 & * - 2a^2y^2 * + \frac{1}{16}c^4 \\ & - \frac{1}{2}c^2y^2 - \frac{1}{2}a^2c^2 \end{aligned} \right\} = 0;$$

an affected quadratick equation, the roots of which, being diminished by the quantity $\frac{1}{2}c$, by the substitution of $x = y - \frac{1}{2}c$, will be the same as of the proposed equation.

Sometimes higher equations may be resolved by this method.

170. This method requires, that the second term should be taken away from the equation, nor can it be extended beyond equations of the fourth degree. But here is another method, which does not oblige us to take away any term, and which may be applied, not only to equations of the fourth degree, but to those of the fifth or sixth, and sometimes to those of still higher degrees. Let the given equation be $x^4 + ax^3 + a^2x^2 - a^2bx - a^3b = 0;$ $- abx^2$

and let there be taken two subsidiary equations of the second degree, $x^2 + yx + u = 0$, and $x^2 + sx + z = 0$, in which the indeterminates, y, u, s, z , are to be determined afterwards as occasion may require. The product of these will be $x^4 + yx^3 + ux^2 + usx + zu = 0$, which is to be compared, term $+ sx^3 + syx^2 + zyx$ $+ zx^2$

by term, with the proposed equation. From the comparison of the second terms, we shall have $s = a - y$; from the comparison of the last terms, $z = -\frac{a^3b}{u}$; and from the comparison of the fourth, $yz + su = -a^2b$; and, instead of s and z , substituting their values, that we may have an equation expressed by y and u only, and known quantities, it will be $y = \frac{auu + aabu}{uu + a^3b}$.

And, because we have found $zu = -a^3b$, from the comparison of the last terms, therefore u ought to be a divisor of $-a^3b$. Whence let the divisors of $-a^3b$ of two dimensions be found, (for those of one or three dimensions will not serve to be subsidiary equations of the second degree,) which are $\pm ab$, $\pm aa$. Let us begin by taking, instead of u , one of these divisors, for example ab , which, being substituted in the equation $y = \frac{auu + aabu}{uu + a^3b}$, gives $y =$

$\frac{2ab}{a+b}$. Therefore, putting these values of y and u in the subsidiary equation

$$x^2 +$$

$x^2 + yx + u = 0$, it will be $x^2 + \frac{2abx}{a+b} + ab = 0$. And by this, if we try the division of the proposed equation, and if it should succeed, then $x^2 + \frac{2abx}{a+b} + ab = 0$ would be one divisor, and the quotient would be the other. But, because the division does not succeed, we must make another trial, by taking, instead of u , the other divisor $-ab$ of the last term, and it will be $y = 0$; and therefore the subsidiary equation $x^2 + yx + u = 0$ will become $x^2 - ab = 0$, by which the proposed equation being divided, it will succeed by giving the quotient $x^2 + ax + aa = 0$. So that the divisors of the proposed equation are $xx - ab = 0$, and $xx + ax + aa = 0$.

Also, instead of u , taking the divisor aa of the last term, by which we shall find $y = a$, and the subsidiary equation will be $xx + ax + aa = 0$. The division by this will succeed, giving the quotient $xx - ab = 0$; that is, the very same divisors as before.

When all the divisors of the last term are put in the place of u , and if the operation will not succeed by any, it may then be concluded, that the equation proposed cannot be depressed, at least by this method, and that the Problem remains of such a degree as the equation indicates.

But, without trying the division, taking, instead of u , every one of the divisors of two dimensions of the last term, and the correspondent values of y, s, z , we may substitute them in their stead in the subsidiary formulas, $xx + yx + u = 0$, and $xx + sx + z = 0$. And if the product of these will give the proposed equation, they will be the divisors required. Thus, taking, instead of u , the divisor $-ab$, we shall have $y = 0$, and therefore $s = a$, $z = aa$, and the two subsidiary equations will be $xx - ab = 0$, and $xx + ax + aa = 0$, the product of which will give us the proposed equation.

Let the equation $x^4 - 2ax^3 + 2aax^2 - 2a^3x + a^4$ be given, and let it be

$$- ccx^2$$

compared with the product of the two subsidiary equations

$$\begin{array}{l} x^4 + yx^3 + ux^2 + sux + zu = 0. \text{ From the comparison of the second} \\ + sx^3 + syx^2 + zyx \\ + zx^2 \end{array}$$

terms, we shall have $s = -2a - y$. From the comparison of the last terms, $z = \frac{a^4}{u}$. We must take the comparison of the third, and not of the fourth,

in order to have the value of y expressed by c , (which letter must necessarily be in the divisor, which could not be had from the comparison of the fourth,) it will be then $u + sy + z = 2aa - cc$. And substituting the values of s and z ,

it will be $yy + 2ay = \frac{a^4}{u} - 2aa + cc + u$; in which substituting, instead

of u , one of the divisors $\pm aa$ of the last term, suppose $+aa$, and resolving the

the equation, it will be $y = -a \pm \sqrt{aa + cc}$. And putting, in the equation $xx + yx + u = 0$, the values of u and y , (taking for the sign of the radical quantity either *plus* or *minus* as we please, because it will be all the same at last,) we shall have $xx - ax + x\sqrt{aa + cc} + aa = 0$, by which the division of the proposed equation will succeed, making the quotient $xx - ax - x\sqrt{aa + cc} + aa = 0$; and consequently the four roots of the proposed equation will be $x = \frac{1}{2}a - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{aa + cc} \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}aa + \frac{1}{4}cc - \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc}}$, and $x = \frac{1}{2}a + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{aa + cc} \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}aa + \frac{1}{4}cc + \frac{1}{2}a\sqrt{aa + cc}}$.

Let the equation be $x^4 + 2bx^3 + bbx^2 - a^3b = 0$, and let it be compared with the product of the two subsidiary formulas as before. From the comparison of the second terms, we shall have $s = 2b - y$. From the comparison of the last, $z = -\frac{a^3b}{u}$. From the comparison of the fourth, $zy + su = 0$;

and substituting the values of s and z , it will be $-\frac{a^3by}{u} + 2bu - uy = 0$,

that is, $y = \frac{2buu}{a^3b + uu}$. But, taking every one of the rational divisors, $\pm aa$,

$\pm ab$, of the last term, and substituting in the place of u , and doing the rest as usual, the operation does not succeed. Therefore we must try by means of the irrational divisors $\pm a\sqrt{ab}$ of the last term; and therefore putting, instead of u , the irrational divisor $a\sqrt{ab}$, it will be $y = b$. Wherefore the subsidiary equation $xx + yx + u = 0$ will become $xx + bx + a\sqrt{ab} = 0$, by which the proposed equation being divided, there will arise the quotient $xx + bx - a\sqrt{ab} = 0$.

Exemplified
in equations
of the fifth
degree.

171. As to equations of the fifth degree, it is manifest, that if they be not divisible by a linear divisor, as already supposed, they cannot be divided but by one of the second degree, and one of the third. Therefore for such equations must be taken two subsidiary equations, one of the third degree, and another of the second, and the product of these must be compared, term with term, with the proposed equation, in like manner as before.

Let this therefore be the given equation, $x^5 - 4ax^4 + 6aax^3 - 8a^3x^2 + 5a^4x - a^5 = 0$. And let us take the two subsidiary equations $xx + yx + u = 0$, and $x^3 + tx^2 + sx + z = 0$. Of these the product is

$$\begin{aligned} x^5 + yx^4 + ux^3 + tux^2 + sux + zu = 0; \text{ which is to be compared with} \\ + tx^4 + tyx^3 + syx^2 + zyx \\ + sx^3 + zx^2 \end{aligned}$$

the proposed equation. Now, from the comparison of the second terms, we shall have $t = -4a - y$. From the comparison of the last terms, $z =$

$-\frac{a^5}{u}$. From the comparison of the fifth, $s = \frac{5a^4 - zy}{u}$; or the value of z

being

being substituted, $s = \frac{5a^4}{u} + \frac{a^5y}{uu}$. From the comparison of the third, we shall have finally $u + ty + s = 6aa$; and, instead of t and s , putting their values, in order to obtain an equation expressed by y , u , and known quantities only, it will be $yy + 4ay - \frac{a^5y}{uu} = -6aa + u + \frac{5a^4}{u}$. And because, from the comparison of the last terms, we have $z = -\frac{a^5}{u}$, therefore u will be a divisor of $-a^5$. So that, finding all the divisors of two dimensions of $-a^5$, they are to be substituted, one by one, in the foregoing equation, in order to have the value of y , which is then to be put instead of y in the subsidiary equation $xx + yx + u = 0$, as also the value of u . And if the division of the given equation shall succeed by this, we shall have our desire. Now the divisors of two dimensions of the last term are $\pm aa$. Let us take $+aa$, which being substituted instead of u in the equation foregoing, we shall have $yy + 3ay = 0$, that is, $y = 0$, and $y = -3a$. If, in the subsidiary equation $xx + yx + u = 0$, we put the divisor $+aa$ instead of u , and besides, if we put 0 , which is one of the values found, instead of y , it will become $xx + aa = 0$, by which the division of the proposed equation does not succeed. Therefore, instead of y , we may put it's other value $-3a$, and we shall have $xx - 3ax + aa = 0$, by which the division succeeds, and gives $x^3 - ax^2 + 2aax - a^3 = 0$ in the quotient. If the operation had not succeeded by means of the divisor $+aa$, we must have tried the divisor $-aa$; and if neither by this we had obtained our desire, we must have concluded the equation to be irreducible, at least by this method.

Let the equation be $x^5 + ax^4 + a^3x^2 - aabbx - a^4b = 0$, which is to

$$-a^2bx^2$$

be compared, term by term, with the product of the two usual subsidiary equations; and from the comparison of the second terms, we shall find $t = a - y$.

From the comparison of the last terms, $z = -\frac{a^4b}{u}$. From the comparison of the fifth, $su + zy = -aabb$. Now, instead of z , substituting it's value, it will be $s = -\frac{aabb}{u} + \frac{a^4by}{uu}$. From the comparison of the third, we shall have $u + ty + s = 0$, in which, instead of t and s , putting their values, it will be $yy - ay - \frac{a^4by}{uu} = \frac{uu - aabb}{u}$. The divisors of two dimensions of a^4b are $\pm aa$, and $\pm ab$. We must try the operation by means of the divisor $-ab$. And therefore, instead of u , putting it's value $-ab$ in the last equation, it will be $yy - ay - \frac{aay}{b} = 0$. Thence $y = 0$, and $y = \frac{ab + aa}{b}$. In the subsidiary equation $xx + yx + u = 0$, instead of y let it's value $\frac{aa + ab}{b}$ be

be substituted, and $-ab$ instead of u , and it will be $xx + ax + \frac{aa}{b}x - ab = 0$, by which the division does not succeed. Therefore take the other value of y , which is 0 , and the subsidiary equation will be $xx - ab = 0$, by which the division of the proposed equation will succeed, and the quotient will be $x^3 + ax^2 + abx + a^3 = 0$.

We were at liberty to make a comparison between the fourth terms; but, for greater simplicity, I made choice of the third terms.

Equations of
the sixth de-
gree resolved.

172. Equations of the sixth degree, supposed not to be reducible by any linear divisor, cannot be otherwise reducible but either by three divisors of two dimensions, or by one of two dimensions and one of four, or by two of three dimensions. But it will be sufficient to examine the two cases, in which they are reducible by two of three dimensions, or by one of two and one of four. For as much as reducing them by one of two, the reduced equation will be of four dimensions, which may afterwards be reduced by two divisors of two dimensions, if the proposed equation be reducible by three of two dimensions.

Let the equation given be this: $x^6 - 13ax^5 + 45aax^4 - 71a^3x^3 + 57a^4x^2 - 16a^5x + 2a^6 = 0$, which is required to be reduced by one of two dimensions, and one of four. Let therefore be taken the two subsidiary equations $xx + yx + u = 0$, and $x^4 + px^3 + tx^2 + sx + z = 0$, of which the product is $x^6 + px^5 + tx^4 + sx^3 + zx^2 + zyx + zu = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &+ yx^5 + pyx^4 + tyx^3 + syx^2 + sux \\
 &+ ux^4 + pux^3 + tux^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, from the comparison of the second terms, we shall have $p = -13a - y$. From the comparison of the last terms, $z = \frac{2a^6}{u}$. From the comparison of the third, $t + py + u = 45aa$; and by substituting the value of p , it will be $t = 45aa + 13ay + yy - u$. From the comparison of the fifth, $zy + su = -16a^5$; and putting here the value of z , it will be $s = -\frac{2a^6y}{uu} - \frac{16a^5}{u}$. From the comparison of the fifth, $z + sy + tu = 57a^4$; and substituting the values of z , s , and t , that we may have an equation expressed by u and y alone, and by the known quantities of the proposed equation, it will be at last $\frac{2a^6}{u} - \frac{2a^6y^2}{uu} - \frac{16a^5y}{u} + 45a^2u + 13ayu + uy^2 - u^2 = 57a^4$. That is, $yy + \frac{13au^3y - 16a^5uy + 2a^6u - 57a^4u^2 + 45a^2u^3 - u^4}{u^3 - 2a^6} = 0$. And, because the divisors of two dimensions of the last term $2a^6$ are $\pm aa$, and $\pm 2aa$, we must make a trial, by putting in this last equation, instead of u , the divisor $+aa$, and it will be $yy + 3ay + 11aa = 0$, which, being resolved, will give $y =$

$y = \frac{-3a \pm \sqrt{-35aa}}{2}$. Whence the subsidiary formula $xx + yx + u = 0$

will be $xx - \frac{3a + \sqrt{-35aa}}{2}x + aa = 0$. But by this, even though we should take

the alternative of the signs of the radical, the proposed equation is not divisible; nor will it succeed if we should take the divisor $-aa$; therefore we must take $+2aa$, and we shall have $yy + 12ay + 20aa = 0$, that is, $y = -6a \pm 4a$, or $y = -10a$, and $y = -2a$. Take $y = -10a$, and substitute it in the subsidiary formula $xx + yx + u = 0$, and $-10a$ instead of y , and $+2aa$ instead of u , and it will be $xx - 10ax + 2aa = 0$. But by this the division of the proposed equation does not succeed. Therefore take the other value of y , or $-2a$, and the formula will be $xx - 2ax + 2aa = 0$, by which the division succeeds, making in the quotient $x^4 - 11ax^3 + 21aax^2 - 7a^3x + a^4 = 0$.

Here it may not be amiss to observe, that, instead of the comparison of the fifth terms, if I had made a comparison of the fourth, I should have fallen upon the cubick equation $2y^3 + 26ay^2 + 81aay + 74a^3 = 0$. But the comparison of the fifth terms has brought me to a quadratick equation only. Hence it may be seen, that the choice of the comparison of some terms rather than of others may be of good advantage. Yet, however, this cubick equation might have been of use; for, finding it's roots, which are $y + 2a = 0$, and $y + \frac{11a}{2} \pm \sqrt{47aa} = 0$, one of these, $y = -2a$, would have given me the same equation $xx - 2ax + 2aa = 0$, by which the proposed equation may be divided.

Let $x^6 + 3ax^5 + 4aax^4 + 6a^3x^3 + 6a^4x^2 + 3a^5x + 2a^6 = 0$, be the given equation of the sixth degree, not reducible by a divisor of two dimensions. Let us therefore attempt the reduction by two equations of three dimensions, and let us take these two subsidiary equations, $x^3 + yx^2 + px + u = 0$, and $x^3 + tx^2 + sx + z = 0$, of which this is the product;

$$\begin{aligned} x^6 + yx^5 + px^4 + ux^3 + tux^2 + sux + zu &= 0. \\ + tx^5 + tyx^4 + ptx^3 + psx^2 + pzx \\ + sx^4 + syx^3 + zyx^2 \\ + zx^3 \end{aligned}$$

Now, from the comparison of the second terms, we shall have $t = 3a - y$. From the comparison of the last terms, $z = \frac{2a^6}{u}$. From the comparison of the sixth, $su + pz = 3a^5$; and substituting the value of z , it will be $s = \frac{3a^5}{u} - \frac{2a^6p}{uu}$. From the comparison of the third, $p + ty + s = 4aa$; and substituting the values of t and s , it will be $p = \frac{4aaau - 3a^5u + unyy - 3auny}{uu - 2a^6}$. From the
Y comparison

comparison of the fourth, $u + pt + sy + z = 6a^3$; and, instead of t, s, z , substituting their values, that we may have another value of p , expressed by u, y , and the known quantities of the equation, it will be $p = \frac{6a^3uu - u^3 - 3a^5uy - 2a^6u}{3auu - uuy - 2a^6y}$.

Now, between these two values of p let an equation be made, to obtain the value of y expressed by u only, and the given quantities of the equation. This will be $\frac{4aauu - 3a^5u - 3auuy + uuyy}{uu - 2a^6} = \frac{6a^3uu - u^3 - 3a^5uy - 2a^6u}{3auu - uuy - 2a^6y}$. Then, reducing to a common denominator, and ordering the equation by y , it will be

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} y^3 - 6a^7uy^2 + 8a^3uy - 6a^3u^3 \\ - 6au^3y^2 - 6a^5uuy + 9a^6u^2 \\ + 13a^2u^3y - 12a^9u \\ + 4a^{12} \\ - u^4 \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

$$u^3 + 2a^6u$$

And, because it is $uz = 2a^6$, we shall have u a divisor of $2a^6$. But the divisors of three dimensions of $2a^6$ are $\pm a^3$, and $\pm 2a^3$. Whence, taking one of these instead of u , suppose $+a^3$, and substituting it in the last equation, we shall have $y^3 - 4ay^2 + 5aay - 2a^3 = 0$. From hence must be extracted the values of y , one of which is $y = 2a$, which, being substituted in one of the values of p instead of y , and putting instead of u the divisor a^3 , it will be $p = aa$. Wherefore, substituting these values of y, p , and u , in the subsidiary formula $x^3 + yx^2 + px + u = 0$, it will become $x^3 + 2ax^2 + aax + a^3 = 0$, by which the proposed equation being divided, will give the quotient $x^3 + ax^2 + aax + 2a^3 = 0$. If the division had not succeeded by taking $y = 2a$, I must have taken $y = a$. And if I had not attained my purpose by this, I must have made trials with every one of the other divisors, repeating the same operations. And if it had succeeded by none of these, the proposed equation could not have been depressed, at least not by this method, but would have remained of the sixth degree.

Let $x^6 + ax^5 + aax^4 + 3a^3x^3 + a^4x^2 + a^5x + 2a^6 = 0$ be the equation, which is to be compared with the product of the two subsidiary equations, as in the foregoing example. From the comparison of the second terms, we shall have $t = a - y$. From the comparison of the last terms, $z = \frac{2a^6}{u}$. From the comparison of the sixth, $su + pz = a^5$; and, instead of z , putting its value, it will be $s = \frac{a^5}{u} - \frac{2a^6p}{uu}$. From the comparison of the third, $p + ty + s = aa$; and putting the values of t and s , it is $p = \frac{aauu - auuy + uuyy - a^5u}{uu - 2a^6}$. From the comparison of the fourth, $u + pt + sy + z = 3a^3$; and substituting the

the values of z , s , t , in order to have another value of p , expressed only by u , y , and known quantities, it will be $p = \frac{3a^3uu - a^3uy - 2a^6u - u^3}{auu - uuy - 2a^6y}$. Make an equation between these two values of p , that we may have the value of y given by u only and known quantities; and when all the necessary operations are performed, it will be

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} y^3 - 2au^3y^2 + 2aa^3y + 2a^3u^3 \\ - 2a^7uy^2 - 2a^5uuy + a^6u^2 \\ + 2a^8uy - 6a^9u \\ - u^4 \\ + 4a^{12} \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

$$u^3 + 2a^6u$$

The divisors of three dimensions of $2a^6$ are $\pm a^3$, and $\pm 2a^3$. Instead of u , take the divisor $+ a^3$, to be substituted in this last equation, which then will be reduced to $y^3 - \frac{4}{3}ay^2 + \frac{2}{3}aay = 0$. And dividing by y , it will be $y = 0$, and $y^2 - \frac{4}{3}ay + \frac{2}{3}aa = 0$; that is, $y = \frac{2a \pm \sqrt{-2aa}}{3}$. Of these three values of y take the first, or $y = 0$, and substitute this instead of y in one of the two values of p , and a^3 instead of u , and it will be $p = 0$. Then the subsidiary equation $x^3 + yx^2 + px + u = 0$ will become $x^3 + a^3 = 0$; by which the proposed equation being divided, will give $x^3 + ax^2 + a^2x + 2a^3 = 0$ for the quotient.

In such equations as these, if it were known at first that they are divisible by a divisor, in which some term is wanting, much labour might be spared, by taking one of the two subsidiary equations without that term. But, because this is not known, we may first try the operation with one of those subsidiary equations, which wants either one or more terms. Nevertheless, because the labour would be lost, if the proposed equation be not reducible by this means, and there will be need at last, notwithstanding this compendium, to have recourse to compleat subsidiary equations, it will be better at once to use this general method, because it gives the divisors in both cases.

Without repeating the operations at every example, I might have formed a general canon, to which every particular equation might be referred, after the same manner as that at § 168. But besides, as this may create some confusion, it seems to me that actual operations made on purpose afford more light, and have a better effect; therefore I have rather chose to confine myself to them.

173. After the same analogy, we may apply this method to equations of a superior order, but the calculation increases beyond measure. For, if we are ^{Applied to higher equations.}

to reduce an equation of the eighth degree, for example, by means of two equations of the fourth, in which no term is wanting, each of the two subsidiary equations must have four indeterminates, or general co-efficients. Whence, if we consider one of these equations, such as this, $x^4 + yx^3 + px^2 + qx + u = 0$, and take for u one of the divisors of the last term of the proposed equation, there will remain three indeterminates, y, p, q , to be determined by the usual comparisons, in which there will occur solid equations, whose roots are to be extracted, in order that the operation may proceed.

PROBLEM I.

Applied to
the solution
of an arith-
metical prob-
lem.

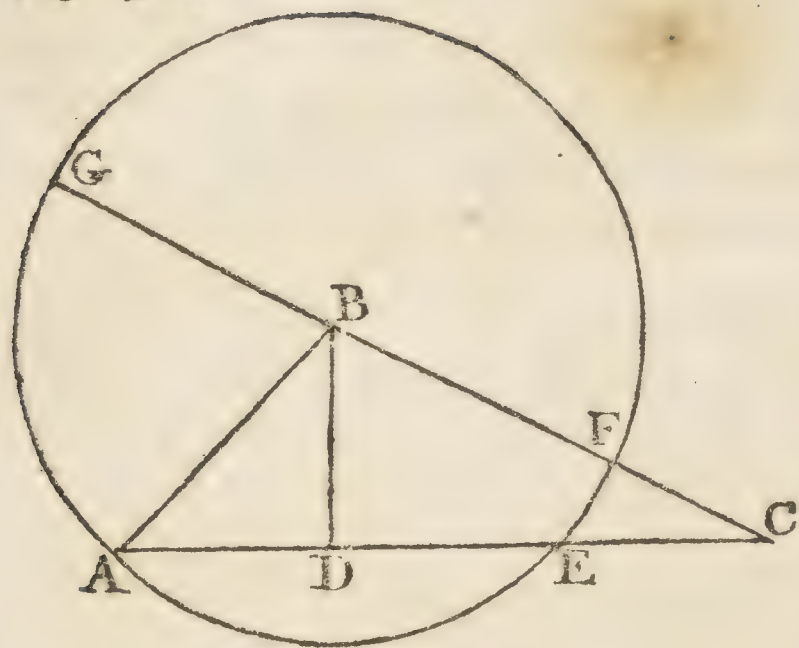
174. To find four numbers, which exceed one another by unity, and their product is 100.

Make the first number equal to x , the second will be $x + 1$, the third $x + 2$, and the fourth $x + 3$. Therefore their product will be $x^4 + 6x^3 + 11x^2 + 6x = 100$, or $x^4 + 6x^3 + 11x^2 + 6x - 100 = 0$. Now, because this equation is not divisible by any divisor of the last term, we must make the second term to vanish by the substitution of $x = z - \frac{3}{2}$, and there will arise the equation $z^4 - \frac{5}{2}z^2 + \frac{1591}{16} = 0$, which is an affected quadratich, the roots of which are $zz = \frac{5}{4} \pm \sqrt{101}$, and therefore $z = \pm \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} \pm \sqrt{101}}$. Whence we shall have $x = -\frac{3}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} \pm \sqrt{101}}$. Therefore, of the four values of x , two are real, that is, $x = -\frac{3}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$, and the other two are imaginary. If we take one of the real roots, $-\frac{3}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$, for the first number of the four that are required, then $-\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$ will be the second, $\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$ will be the third, and $\frac{3}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$ will be the fourth: the product of which numbers will be found to be 100. If we should take the other real value of x , that is, $-\frac{3}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$, for the first number, then $-\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$ would be the second, $\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$ would be the third, and $\frac{3}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{5}{4} + \sqrt{101}}$ would be the fourth; the product of which numbers would also be found to be 100.

PRO-

PROBLEM II.

Fig. 91:



175. In the right-angled triangle ABC A geometrical problem.
the lesser side AB is given, and, letting fall the perpendicular BD to the base AC, the difference of the segments AD, DC, of the same base AC is given also; it is required to find FC, the difference of the sides AB, BC.

With centre B, distance BA, let the circle AEFB be described, and make $AB = a$, $CE = b$, the given difference of the segments AD, DC; and make FC, the difference required, $= x$. It will be $GC = 2a + x$, and, by the property of the circle,

$GC \times CF = AC \times CE$, that is, $2ax + xx = AC \times b$, and therefore $AC = \frac{2ax + xx}{b}$. But, because the angle ABC is a right angle, we shall

have the equation $\frac{4aaxx + 4ax^3 + x^4}{bb} = 2aa + 2ax + xx$, or, by reduction,

$x^4 + 4ax^3 + 4aaxx - 2abbx - 2aabb = 0$. Now this is not divisible by $bbxx$

any divisor of the last term, and therefore we must take away the second term by the substitution of $x = z - a$; whence we shall have the affected quadratick

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} z^4 - 2aazx + a^4 \\ - bbzx - aabb \end{array} \right\} = 0,$$

the roots of which are $zx = \frac{2aa + bb \pm \sqrt{8aabb + b^4}}{2}$, and thence $z =$

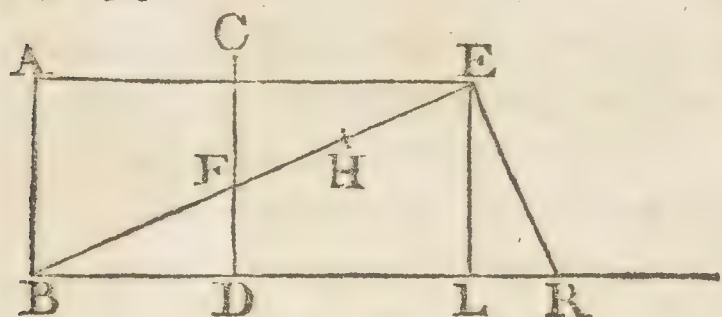
$\pm \sqrt{\frac{2aa + bb \pm \sqrt{8aabb + b^4}}{2}}$. So that $x = -a \pm \sqrt{\frac{2aa + bb \pm \sqrt{8aabb + b^4}}{2}}$,

which are the four roots, and all real, when a is greater than b . The root $x = -a + \sqrt{aa + \frac{1}{2}bb + b\sqrt{2aa + \frac{1}{4}bb}}$, which is positive, is adapted to the proposed Problem. The negative root $x = -a + \sqrt{aa + \frac{1}{2}bb - b\sqrt{2aa + \frac{1}{4}bb}}$ is adapted to the case, when the side BC is less than the side AB; the other two roots serve for the angle ABG.

177. Very often, when the Problem is not really solid, but plane, it may appear as an equation of three dimensions, by making use of some certain line for the unknown quantity; but, by using some other line for the unknown quantity, it may put on the form of an equation of two dimensions only. I shall take an example of this in the foregoing Problem, in which, making $DF = x$, there has been found an equation of the fourth degree, by which means we have been obliged to take the trouble of reducing it. But, supposing E to be

How higher equations may sometimes be avoided.

Fig. 93.



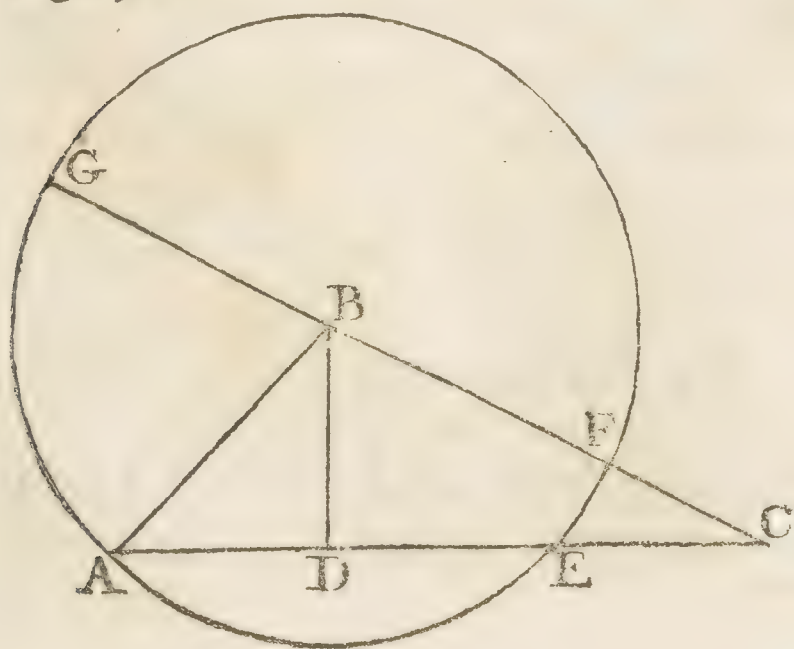
the point required, draw ER perpendicular to BE, which may meet BD produced in R, and EL perpendicular to BR. Then make $DR = x$, and, as before, $BD = a$, $FE = c$, and $BF = y$, another unknown quantity to be eliminated afterwards; it will be $BR = a + x$, $BE = c + y$. Now, because of similar triangles, BDF, ELR, it will be $ER = y$, because of $EL = CD = BD$. And, because of similar

triangles, BRE, ERL, it will be $BR \cdot BE :: ER \cdot EL$. Therefore it will be $a + x \cdot c + y :: y \cdot a$; whence $cy + yy = aa + ax$. But, because of the right angle BER, the square of BR is equal to the sum of the squares of BE and ER; that is, $aa + 2ax + xx = 2yy + 2cy + cc$. Therefore, instead of $cy + yy$, putting it's value $aa + ax$, the equation will be $aa + 2ax + xx = 2aa + 2ax + cc$, that is, $x = \pm \sqrt{aa + cc}$.

Again, after another manner. Bisect FE in H, and making $CD = a$, let the given line be $2c$, to which FE ought to be equal. And making $BH = x$, it will be $BF = x - c$, and $BE = x + c$. But $BEq - ABq = AEq$; therefore it will be $AE = \sqrt{xx + 2cx + cc - aa}$. Now, because of the similar triangles, BDF, BEA, it will be $BF(x - c) \cdot BD(a) :: BE(x + c) \cdot AE = \sqrt{xx + 2cx + cc - aa}$. Whence $ax + ac = (x - c) \times \sqrt{xx + 2cx + cc - aa}$; and, by squaring and ordering the equation, it will be finally

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x^4 - 2aaxx - 2aacc \\ - 2ccxx + c^4 \end{aligned} \right\} = 0, \text{ an affected quadratick equation, of which}$$
 the four roots are $x = \pm \sqrt{aa + cc} \pm a\sqrt{aa + 4cc}$.

Fig. 91.



After the same manner in Prob. II. § 175, if, instead of making $FC = x$, I had denominated $BC = x$; by pursuing the same argumentation, I should have found the equation $x^4 - 2aaxx + a^4 - b^2xx - aabb \} = 0$, an affected quadratick, of which the roots are $x = \pm \sqrt{aa + \frac{1}{2}bb} \pm b\sqrt{2aa + \frac{1}{4}bb}$, which agree with those before found.

Again,

Again, in a simpler manner. Make $AE = x$, and, arguing as before, we should have the equation $xx + bx = 2ax$, and therefore $x = -\frac{1}{2}b \pm \sqrt{2aa + \frac{1}{4}bb}$. And, because we should find the expression $-a + \sqrt{bb + 2bx + xx - aa}$ for EC , instead of x putting the value now found, we should have what is required, or the same value for EC as before.

Or otherwise,
by finding
two values of
the same
quantity.

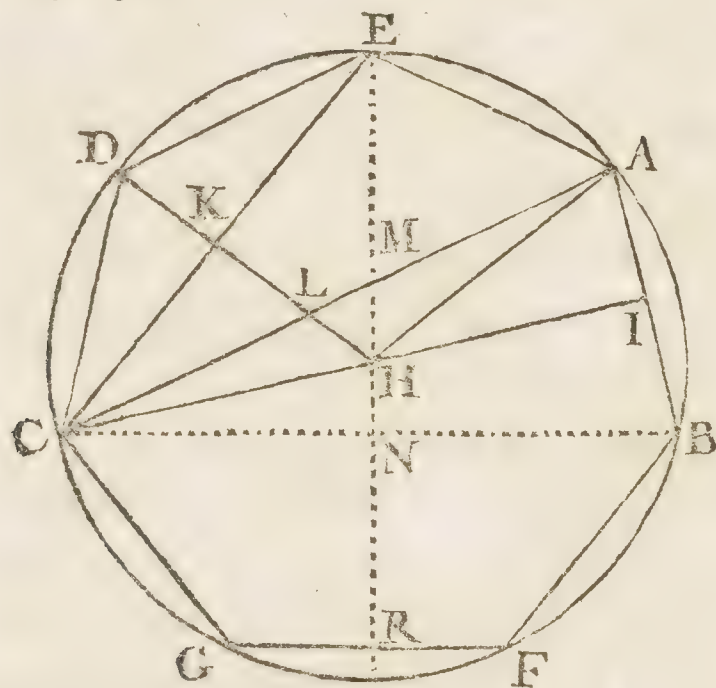
178. Another artifice may be tried for such like Problems, when they bring us to a solid equation, and yet are not such in their own nature. This is, retaining the same line for the unknown quantity, by which the first equation is found; then, by means of another property, to find a second equation, and to equal one to the other. From their comparison, a third equation will arise of an inferior degree. See an example of this in the following Problem.

P R O B L E M.

This exem-
plified in a
geometrical
problem.

179. In a given circle, to inscribe a regular heptagon.

Fig. 94.



Let the given circle be $ABFGCDE$, with centre H , radius $HA = r$, and let the side of the heptagon be $AB = BF = FG$, &c. $= x$. Let AB be bisected in I ; it will be $AI = \frac{1}{2}x = IB$. And drawing IC , which will necessarily pass through the centre H , it will be $HI = \sqrt{rr - \frac{1}{4}xx}$, $CI = r + \sqrt{rr - \frac{1}{4}xx}$, $CB = \sqrt{2rr + 2r\sqrt{rr - \frac{1}{4}xx}}$. Let there be drawn CE and HD ; the triangles CDK , HIA , will be similar, because of the two right angles CKD , HIA , and of the angles DCK , AHI , the first of which, because it insists on the arch DE , will be double to the angle

ACI , which insists on the half of DE , and therefore is equal to the angle AHI the double of the same angle ACI . Hence we shall have, by the similitude of

these triangles, $CK = \frac{x}{r} \sqrt{rr - \frac{1}{4}xx} = \frac{\sqrt{4rrxx - x^4}}{2r}$, $CE = \frac{\sqrt{4rrxx - x^4}}{r}$,

and $HK = \sqrt{rr - \frac{4rrxx - x^4}{4rr}} = \frac{2rr - xx}{2r}$. But the triangles CEN , CHK ,

are also similar, the two angles at K , N , being right ones, and the two angles KCH , CEN , are equal, because they insist on two equal segments. Therefore

it will be $CN = \frac{2rr - xx \times \sqrt{4rrxx - x^4}}{2r^3}$, and $CB = \frac{2rr - xx \times \sqrt{4rrxx - x^4}}{r^3}$,

and thence the equation $\sqrt{rr} + r\sqrt{4rr - xx} = \frac{2rr - xx \times \sqrt{4rrxx - x^4}}{r^3}$.

Therefore, squaring, it will be $2rr + r\sqrt{4rr - xx} = \frac{4r^4 - 4r^2x^2 + x^4}{r^6} \times \frac{4rrxx - x^4}{r^3}$;

and squaring again, and ordering, we shall have $x^{14} - 16r^2x^{12} + 104r^4x^{10} - 352r^6x^8 + 660r^8x^6 - 672r^{10}x^4 + 336r^{12}x^2 - 63r^{14} = 0$. But this equation is divisible by $x^2 - 3r^2 = 0$. When the division is performed, we shall have $x^{12} - 13r^2x^{10} + 65r^4x^8 - 157r^6x^6 + 189r^8x^4 - 105r^{10}x^2 + 21r^{12} = 0$, which is not divisible by any divisor of two dimensions; wherefore the Problem seems to be of twelve dimensions. Therefore I resolve this Problem in another manner, retaining the same unknown quantity $x = AB = BF = \&c$. Because, in the triangles HCD, CDL, the angle CDH is common, and the angle at the circumference DCL, which insists upon the arch CD, the half of DA, these triangles will be similar, and therefore we shall have $DL = \frac{xx}{r}$, and $LH = r - \frac{xx}{r}$.

But the angle DLC = DCH = EDH; wherefore the angle HLM, which is equal to the angle at the vertex DLC, will be equal to the angle EDH; whence the two right lines LM, DE, will be parallel, and the triangles HLM, HDE,

will be similar, and therefore it will be $LM = \frac{rrx - x^3}{rr}$. But $CL = CD = x$,

(the triangle LDC being similar to the isosceles triangle HDC,) and $CL = MA$, because the angles HLC, HMA, are equal, and therefore the triangles HLC,

HMA, are equal and similar. Therefore $CA = 2x + \frac{rrx - x^3}{rr}$. And, because

$CA = CB$, the equation will be $\frac{3rrx - x^3}{rr} = \sqrt{2rr + r\sqrt{4rr - xx}}$. And, by

squaring, $9r^4x^2 - 6r^2x^4 + x^6 = 2r^6 + r^5\sqrt{4rr - xx}$. And, by squaring again, and ordering the terms, the equation will be $x^{10} - 12rrx^8 + 54r^4x^6 - 112r^6x^4 + 105r^8x^2 - 35r^{10} = 0$.

And thus I am arrived at another equation, which, because it is of an inferior degree to the first, must be multiplied by such a power of the unknown quantity, as is necessary to bring it to the same degree, so that it may be compared with that. Therefore, multiplying it by xx , it will be $x^{12} - 12r^2x^{10} + 54r^4x^8 - 112r^6x^6 + 105r^8x^4 - 35r^{10}x^2 = x^{12} - 13r^2x^{10} + 65r^4x^8 - 175r^6x^6 + 189r^8x^4 - 105r^{10}x^2 + 21r^{12}$. Now, subtracting the first from the second, it will be $x^{10} - 11r^2x^8 + 45r^4x^6 - 84r^6x^4 + 70r^8x^2 - 21r^{10} = 0$. Which, because it is of the tenth degree, being compared with the second equation found above, and subtracted from the same, will be $x^8 - 9r^2x^6 + 28r^4x^4 - 35r^6x^2 + 14r^8 = 0$, which may be divided by $xx - 2rr$; and making this division, we shall have at last this equation of the sixth degree, $x^6 - 7r^2x^4 + 14r^4x^2 - 7r^6 = 0$.

Z

I have

I have proceeded in this way, to show the use of the method. For otherwise, I might have gone more directly to the same equation, by comparing together the two values of the squares of CA, found in the two different solutions of the

Problem; that is, $\frac{16r^6x^2 - 20r^4x^4 + 8r^2x^6 - x^8}{r^6}$ of the first, and $\frac{9r^4x^2 - 6r^2x^4 + x^6}{r^4}$

of the second. For, making an equation between these two values, and taking away the terms that destroy one another, it will be $x^8 - 7r^2x^6 + 14r^4x^4 - 5r^6x^2 = 0$. And, dividing by x^2 , it will be $x^6 - 7r^2x^4 + 14r^4x^2 - 5r^6 = 0$, as before. We might also, after a more compendious manner, have divided the equation first found by $x^6 - 6r^2x^4 + 9r^4x^2 - 5r^6 = 0$, and the second by $x^4 - 5r^2x^2 + 5r^4 = 0$; and in each case we should find the equation $x^6 - 7r^2x^4 + 14r^4x^2 - 7r^6 = 0$.

Yet the proposed Problem is not of the sixth degree, though it may seem to be such, notwithstanding all this care we take to depress it. To make this appear, we will retain the same composition of the figure, and make $HI = x$. Then it will be $AI = \sqrt{rr - xx} = IB$, $CI = r + x$, $CB = \sqrt{rr + 2rx + xx + rr - xx} = \sqrt{2rr + 2rx}$. Then, by pursuing the same way of arguing as before, we

shall have $CK = \frac{2x\sqrt{rr - xx}}{r}$, $HK = \sqrt{\frac{r^4 - 4r^2x^2 + 4x^4}{rr}} = \frac{rr - 2xx}{r}$, $CE = 2CK = \frac{4x}{r}\sqrt{rr - xx}$, $CN = \frac{4rrx - 8x^3}{r^3} \times \sqrt{rr - xx}$, $CB = 2CN = \frac{8rrx - 16x^3}{r^3}\sqrt{rr - xx}$. But we have before found $CB = \sqrt{2rr + 2rx}$. Therefore the equation will be $\sqrt{2rr + 2rx} = \frac{8rrx - 16x^3}{r^3} \times \sqrt{rr - xx}$.

Now I shall seek another equation after a different manner, but shall retain the same unknown quantity $HI = x$. By the same reasoning as above, it will be $DL = \frac{4rr - 4xx}{r}$, $LH = r - \frac{4rr - 4xx}{r} = \frac{4xx - 3rr}{r}$, $LM = 2\sqrt{\frac{rr - xx}{rr}} \times \frac{4xx - 3rr}{r}$, $CA = 4\sqrt{rr - xx} + 2\sqrt{\frac{rr - xx}{rr}} \times \frac{4xx - 3rr}{r}$; that is, by reduction, $CA = \frac{8xx - 2rr}{rr}\sqrt{rr - xx} = CB$. Whence the equation $\sqrt{2rr + 2rx} = \frac{8xx - 2rr}{rr}\sqrt{rr - xx}$; and lastly, by equalling the *homogeneous* comparisonis of each equation, it will be $\frac{8rrx - 16x^3}{r^3}\sqrt{rr - xx} = \frac{8xx - 2rr}{rr}\sqrt{rr - xx}$, which, being reduced, will be $8x^3 + 4rxx - 4rrx - r^3 = 0$, an equation only of the third degree.

180. When the methods above-described have been put in practice, if the equations cannot be depressed, but still remain above the second degree, we may proceed two ways in the solution of Problems, which arise to three or more dimensions. The way of least general use belongs only to equations of the third or fourth degree, and consists in resolving them by unravelling the analytical values of the unknown quantity, which therefore will present themselves under the form of cubick roots; which method is called *Cardan's Rule*. The second way is more general, and of much more extensive use, and consists in finding the geometrical values of the unknown quantity, by means of the intersections of certain curve-lines, which are purposely introduced into the equation; that so the proposed Problem may be constructed.

181. But, to begin with the analytical solution. I suppose the equations to be without the second terms, because they may always be reduced to such, if they are not such already. And all equations of the third degree, wanting the second terms, are comprehended under these four canonical formulæ.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{I. } x^3 - px - q = 0. & \text{II. } x^3 + px - q = 0. \\ \text{III. } x^3 - px + q = 0. & \text{IV. } x^3 + px + q = 0. \end{array}$$

Make $x = y + z$, then $px = py + pz$, and $x^3 = y^3 + 3y^2z + 3yz^2 + z^3$. And, substituting these values in the first equation, it will be $y^3 + 3y^2z + 3yz^2 + z^3 - py - pz - q = 0$. Of this we may form two equations, which are $3y^2z + 3yz^2 = py + pz$, and $y^3 + z^3 = q$. Dividing the first by $y + z$, we shall have $3yz = p$, or $y = \frac{p}{3z}$. This, substituted in the second, will give $\frac{p^3}{27z^3} + z^3 = q$, or $z^6 - qz^3 = -\frac{1}{27}p^3$. Whence, by the rule for affected quadratics, $z^6 - qz^3 + \frac{1}{4}qq = \frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3$, and $z^3 = \frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}$. Lastly, it will be $z = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$. In the extraction of the square-root, I have taken only the positive sign, because the negative would bring no variation, and gives at last for the value of x the same quantity as the positive, as may be seen from the calculation. And it is to be understood in like manner in the other canonical equations. Now, because $y^3 + z^3 = q$, it will be therefore $y^3 = q - \frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}$, and thence $y = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$. But it was at first $x = y + z$; therefore $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$. Hence it is seen, that the alternative of the signs, which was omitted, makes no variation.

182. The second equation $x^3 + px - q = 0$, making the same substitutions, will be $y^3 + 3y^2z + 3z^2y + z^3 + py + pz - q = 0$. From hence let the two equations be formed, $3y^2z + 3yz^2 = -py - pz$, and $y^3 + z^3 = q$.

From the first, we have $3yz = -p$, or $y = -\frac{p}{3z}$, which, substituted in the second, gives $-\frac{p^3}{27z^3} + z^3 = q$, or $z^6 - qz^3 = \frac{1}{27}p^3$. And therefore $z^3 = \frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}$, and $z = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$. But $y^3 + z^3 = q$, therefore $y = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, and $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$.

The third case.

183. The third equation $x^3 - px + q = 0$, making the substitutions, will be $y^3 + 3y^2z + 3yz^2 + z^3 - py - pz + q = 0$. Let the two equations be formed, $3y^2z + 3yz^2 = py + pz$, and $y^3 + z^3 = -q$. From the first, we have $3yz = p$, or $y = \frac{p}{3z}$, which, substituted in the second, gives $\frac{p^3}{27z^3} + z^3 = -q$, or $z^6 + qz^3 = -\frac{1}{27}p^3$; and therefore $z^3 = -\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}$, and thence $z = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$. But $y^3 + z^3 = -q$; whence $y = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, and lastly, $x = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$.

The fourth and last case.

184. The fourth equation $x^3 + px + q = 0$, making the substitutions, will be $y^3 + 3y^2z + 3yz^2 + z^3 + py + pz + q = 0$. Forming the two equations, $3y^2z + 3yz^2 = -py - pz$, and $y^3 + z^3 = -q$, from the first we shall have $3yz = -p$, or $y = -\frac{p}{3z}$. This, substituted in the second, gives $-\frac{p^3}{27z^3} + z^3 = -q$, or $z^6 + qz^3 = \frac{1}{27}p^3$, and therefore $z^3 = -\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}$, and thence $z = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$. But $y^3 + z^3 = -q$; whence $y = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, and lastly, $x = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{-\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$.

Other expressions of the same roots.

185. The same roots or formulæ may be had, by putting $x = z \pm \frac{p}{3z}$, that is, $+\frac{p}{3z}$, if in the equation it be $-px$, and $-\frac{p}{3z}$, if it be $+px$ in the equation. Whence $x^3 = z^3 \pm pz + \frac{pp}{3z} \pm \frac{p^3}{27z^3}$. Make therefore the substitutions in the first canonical equation, and it will be $z^3 + \frac{p^3}{27z^3} - q = 0$, or $z^6 - qz^3 = -\frac{1}{27}p^3$, and $z^3 = \frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}$, and then $z = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$. Therefore, because it was made $x = z + \frac{p}{3z}$, it will be $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \frac{p}{3\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}}$.

To reduce this to the same expression found in the first manner, it will be sufficient to multiply the numerator and denominator of the second term of the *homogeneum comparationis* by $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, and it will be $\frac{p\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}}{3\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, that is, $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, and therefore x will be the same as before. And the like may be observed in the other cases.

186. It is evident that the values of the unknown quantity x , found by the first substitution of $x = y + z$, require the extraction of two different cubick roots, whereas the second, by the substitution of $x = z \pm \frac{p}{3z}$, require the extraction of one only; and that the value by the second and fourth canonical equation will always appear under a real form, because the quantities under the quadratick radical are wholly positive. But that of the first and third will be under a real form, if $\frac{1}{4}qq$ be greater than $\frac{1}{27}p^3$; and under an imaginary form, when $\frac{1}{4}qq$ is less than $\frac{1}{27}p^3$. And this is called the Irreducible Case; but, notwithstanding this, it does not follow, but that all its roots are real. For all the three values in the first and third equation are real, when $\frac{1}{4}qq$ is less than $\frac{1}{27}p^3$. But when $\frac{1}{4}qq$ is greater than $\frac{1}{27}p^3$, in the first and third equation, and, in general, in the second and fourth, the roots or values alone thus found are real, and the other two are imaginary.

As to the second and fourth equation, this has been already demonstrated at § 152, when they have the third term positive. Then, as to the first and third, when the third term is negative, each of these will have three real roots, which are a , $-b$, $-c$, or $-a$, $+b$, $+c$; and, because the second term is wanting, as is here supposed, it will be $a = b + c$, and the equation therefore, which arises from such roots, will be of this form,

$$\begin{aligned} x^3 - bbx \pm bc \times \overline{b+c} &= 0. \\ -bcx \\ -ccx \end{aligned}$$

When b , c , are real quantities, then $\overline{b+c}^2$ will be a positive quantity; and therefore, if we put $bb - 2bc + cc = D$, it will be also $bb + bc + cc = D + 3bc$, and $\frac{(bb + bc + cc)^3}{27} = \frac{1}{27}D^3 + \frac{1}{3}D^2bc + Dbbcc + b^3c^3$. But besides, it will be $bb + 2bc + cc = \overline{b+c}^2 = D + 4bc$, and therefore $\frac{1}{4}bbcc \times \overline{b+c}^2 = \frac{1}{4}Dbbcc + b^3c^3$. And $\frac{1}{27}D^3 + \frac{1}{3}D^2bc + Dbbcc + b^3c^3$ is greater than $\frac{1}{4}Dbbcc$, and therefore it will also be greater than $\frac{1}{4}bbcc \times \overline{b+c}^2$, and therefore $\frac{1}{27} \times \overline{bb + bc + cc}^3$ will be greater than $\frac{1}{4}bbcc \times \overline{b+c}^2$. That is, the cube of the third part of the co-efficient of the third term, taken positively, is greater than the square of half the last term; that is, $\frac{1}{27}p^3$ is greater than $\frac{1}{4}qq$. Therefore,

fore, if all the roots be real, the third term will always be negative, and besides, $\frac{1}{27}p^3$ will be greater than $\frac{1}{4}qq$. When it happens to be otherwise, two of the roots will be imaginary.

After the foregoing manner, having found one value for each equation, we shall have the other two roots by dividing the proposed equation by this value; for the quotient will be an equation of the second degree, which may always be easily resolved.

A compen-
dium by the
three cubick
roots of
unity.

187. But, if it shall be thought convenient, the trouble of this division may also be spared by considering, that as unity itself has three cubick roots, which are 1 , $-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-3}$, and $-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-3}$; so it may be understood of any other quantity; of $\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}$ for example, which, being multiplied into unity, its three cubick roots will be $1 \times \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, $-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-3}$ into $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, and $-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-3}$ into $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq + \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$.

Whence the three cubick roots of the first equation $x^3 - px - q = 0$, by ordering them in a due manner, will be as follows: $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, $x = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2} \times \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \frac{-1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2} \times \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$, and $x = \frac{-1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2} \times \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} + \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2} \times \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}}$.

And, in fact, if we find the product of these three roots into each other, making, for brevity-sake, $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} = m$ and $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}q - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}qq - \frac{1}{27}p^3}} = n$, the product of the last, $x + \frac{1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}m + \frac{1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2}n$ into the second, $x + \frac{1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2}m + \frac{1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}n$ will be $xx + mx + nx + mm - mn + mn$, which, multiplied into the first, $x - m - n$, will give $x^3 - 3mnx - m^3 - n^3$; and, restoring the values of m and n , it will be finally $x^3 - px - q = 0$, which is the equation proposed. Nor will it be otherwise in the other equations.

Example of
this reduc-
tion.

188. The foregoing general formulæ being thus found, to apply them to the particular use of any given equations, it will be sufficient to compare the proposed equation to that of the four canonical equations which corresponds to it, thence to obtain the values of q and p ; which, being substituted in the formula, will give the roots required.

Let

Let the equation be $x^3 + 2aax - 9a^3 = 0$. The corresponding one of the four canonical equations will be the second, $x^3 + px - q = 0$; so that it will be $p = 2aa$, $q = 9a^3$. Then, making the substitution of these values instead of p and q , in the general expression of the root of this second equation, we shall have $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}}$, or, lastly, $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{2219}{108}a^6}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{2219}{108}a^6}}$. The other two roots will be $x = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2} \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{2219}{108}a^6}} + \frac{-1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2} \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{2219}{108}a^6}}$, and $x = \frac{-1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2} \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{2219}{108}a^6}} + \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2} \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{2219}{108}a^6}}$; the product of which roots will restore the proposed equation.

189. But, without having recourse to the general formulæ, particular equations may be solved independently of them, by making use of the given rule. Examples without the formula. Thus, for the equation $x^3 + 2aax - 9a^3 = 0$, making $x = y + z$, it will be $2aax = 2aay + 2aaz$, and $x^3 = y^3 + 3y^2z + 3yz^2 + z^3$; and, substituting these values in the proposed equation, it will be changed into this other, $y^3 + 3zy^2 + 3z^2y + z^3 + 2aay + 2aaz - 9a^3 = 0$. Of this equation may be made these two, $3zy^2 + 3z^2y = -2aay - 2aaz$, and $y^3 + z^3 = 9a^3$.

From the first, by dividing by $y + z$, we have $3zy = -2aa$, or $y = -\frac{2aa}{3z}$;

which, substituted in the second, gives $-\frac{8a^6}{27z^3} + z^3 = 9a^3$, or $z^6 - 9a^3z^3 = \frac{8}{27}a^6$.

And therefore $z^3 = \frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}$, and $z = \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}}$.

But it is $y^3 + z^3 = 9a^3$, therefore $y^3 = \frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}$, and $y = \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}}$.

But it is $y + z = x$, therefore $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 + \frac{8}{27}a^6}}$, the same as above.

Let the equation be $x^3 + 3ax^2 - 5aax + 2a^3 = 0$. Let the second term be taken away, by making $x = x - a$, and there arises $x^3 - 8a^2x + 9a^3 = 0$. By comparing this with the third canonical equation, we shall have $p = 8aa$, $q = 9a^3$; whence, substituting these values in the general formula for the root, it will be $x = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 - \frac{512}{27}a^6}} + \sqrt[3]{-\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{81}{4}a^6 - \frac{512}{27}a^6}}$, that is, $x = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{9}{2}a^3 + \sqrt{\frac{139}{108}a^6}} + \sqrt[3]{-\frac{9}{2}a^3 - \sqrt{\frac{139}{108}a^6}}$. The like for the other two roots. And, because it was made $x = x - a$, by subtracting the quantity a from each of the three roots, we shall have the roots of the proposed equation.

Let the equation be $x^3 - 9a^2x + 2a^3 = 0$. This will correspond to the third of the four canonical equations, and therefore it will be $p = 9a^2$, $q = 2a^3$; therefore, making a substitution of these values, instead of p and q in the general expression

expression of the root of that third equation, it will be $x = \sqrt[3]{-a^3 + \sqrt{-\frac{7}{27}a^6}} + \sqrt[3]{-a^3 - \sqrt{-\frac{7}{27}a^6}}$; which expression is imaginary, notwithstanding all the three roots are real; as the irreducible case requires.

Reduction of
equations of
the fourth
degree.

190. In equations of the fourth degree, we may proceed after this manner. Let the canonical equation be $x^4 + px^2 + qx - r = 0$, in which the second term is wanting; and if it had not been absent, it might have been taken away. Let this be transformed into a cubick equation, after the manner explained at § 167, by means of the two subsidiary formulæ, $x^2 + yx + z = 0$, and $x^2 - yx + u = 0$; and it will be transformed into $y^6 + 2py^4 + ppy^2 - qq = 0$.
 $+ 4ry^2$

And the two subsidiary equations, by putting, instead of u and z , their values found from the comparison of the terms, will become $x^2 + yx + \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy - \frac{q}{2y} = 0$, and $x^2 - yx + \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{1}{2}yy + \frac{q}{2y} = 0$. Now, as it is supposed that this equation has no divisor of two dimensions, the second term must be taken from it by the substitution of $yy = t - \frac{2}{3}p$, and then we shall have this new equation, $t^3 - \frac{1}{3}ppt - \frac{2}{27}p^3 = 0$.
 $+ 4rt - \frac{8}{3}pr$
 $- qq$

Let this be compared with the first or second of the four canonical equations of § 181, according as $4r$ is less or greater than $\frac{1}{3}pp$, that we may have it's cube-root, which, for brevity-sake, we may call b . Whence it will be $t = b$; and, because it was made $yy = t - \frac{2}{3}p$, it will be $yy = b - \frac{2}{3}p$, and therefore $y = \sqrt{b - \frac{2}{3}p}$, which, for brevity, may be called g . In the two subsidiary formulæ put g instead of y , and gg instead of yy , and they will be $xx + gx + \frac{1}{2}gg + \frac{1}{2}p - \frac{q}{2g} = 0$, and $xx - gx + \frac{1}{2}gg + \frac{1}{2}p + \frac{q}{2g} = 0$; the roots of which are $x = -\frac{1}{2}g \pm \sqrt{\frac{q}{2g} - \frac{1}{2}p - \frac{1}{4}gg}$ of the first, and $x = \frac{1}{2}g \pm \sqrt{-\frac{q}{2g} - \frac{1}{2}p - \frac{1}{4}gg}$ of the second. And, restoring the value of $g = \sqrt{b - \frac{2}{3}p}$, they will be $x = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{b - \frac{2}{3}p} \pm \sqrt{\frac{q}{2\sqrt{b - \frac{2}{3}p}} - \frac{1}{3}p - \frac{1}{4}b}$, and $x = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{b - \frac{2}{3}p} \pm \sqrt{\frac{-q}{2\sqrt{b - \frac{2}{3}p}} - \frac{1}{3}p - \frac{1}{4}b}$, the four roots of the proposed equation $x^4 + px^2 + qx - r = 0$.

Let the equation be $x^4 - 86aax^2 + 600a^3x - 851a^4 = 0$. This being compared with the foregoing canonical equation, we shall have $p = -86aa$, $q = 600a^3$, $r = 851a^4$. Therefore the transformed cubical equation will be $y^6 - 172aay^4 + 10800a^4y^2 - 360000a^6 = 0$. Now, because this is divisible by

by $y^2 - 100a^2 = 0$, without resolving it by the rules of cubick equations, as we know already the root to be $yy = 100aa$, and $y = 10a$; substitute these values instead of y and yy , as also the values of p, q , in the two subsidiary equations, they will be $x^2 + 10ax - 23aa = 0$, and $x^2 - 10ax + 37aa = 0$, and their roots are $x = -5a \pm \sqrt{48aa}$, and $x = 5a \pm \sqrt{-12aa}$, which are therefore the four roots of the proposed equation. This example is inserted only to show the use of the method; for the given equation may be reduced to two of two dimensions, after the way already explained in it's place.

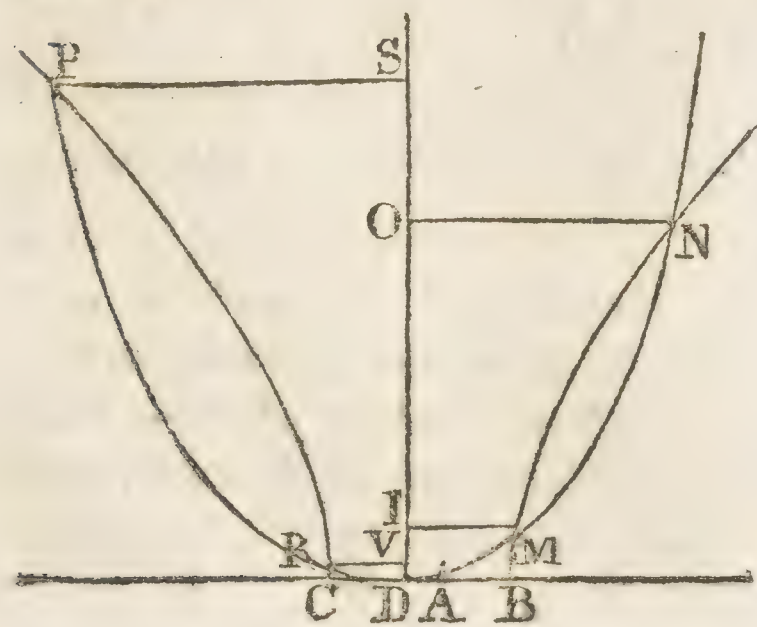
191. This method of resolving equations can be of use only in arithmetical questions, and not in geometrical: because, in this way, we have the value of the unknown quantity expressed by a cube-root, which it is supposed cannot be actually extracted; for, otherwise, the equation would have a divisor, and would not be of the degree it seems to be. Now, to find this cube-root geometrically cannot be done otherwise than by the intersection of curve-lines; which is the second manner, and the general one which I have mentioned before, at § 180.

This method consists in introducing a new unknown quantity into the equation, by which we shall have two equations, each of which contains both the unknown quantities, and both of them together all the known quantities of the proposed equation. These two equations are two *loci geometrici*, which are therefore to be constructed; the intersections of which determine the geometrical values, or the roots of the equation proposed. And the reason of this is manifest. For, as from the combination of two places, or from two indeterminate equations, by putting in one of these, instead of one of the two unknown quantities, it's value given by the other equation, there arises a determinate equation, which determinate equation may be resolved into two indeterminates.

Let there be given the two equations $ax = zx$, and $xx - 5zx + 2az + 3aa = 0$. If from the first, for example, we derive the value of $x = \frac{zz}{a}$, and substitute it in the second, there will arise the determinate equation $z^4 - 5aaz + 2a^3z + 3a^4 = 0$, of the fourth degree. Then, taking the *locus* to the parabola $ax = zx$, if we make the substitution of the value of zx

in the equation $z^4 - 5aaz + 2a^3z + 3a^4 = 0$, there will arise the second *locus* $aaxx - 5aaz^2 + 2a^3z + 3a^4 = 0$, or $x^2 - 5z^2 + 2az + 3a^2 = 0$. To construct this second *locus*, with centre A (Fig. 95.) and transverse axis $CB = \frac{8}{3}a$, and with the parameter $= 8a$, let there be described the two opposite hyperbolas BN, CP, which shall be the *locus* of the equation $x^2 - 5z^2 + 2az + 3a^2 = 0$, taking the absciss z from the point D, which is distant from the centre A by the quantity $\frac{1}{3}a$ towards the vertex C.

Fig. 95.



A a

Rightly

Rightly to combine this with the first *locus* $ax = zx$, it is necessary that the origin and the axis, of the unknown quantity x , may be in common to both the *loci*. And therefore at the vertex D, with the parameter $= a$, upon the axis DO, parallel to the conjugate axis of the opposite hyperbolas, the parabola of the first equation $ax = zx$ should be described. This will meet the two hyperbolas in the four points M, N, R, P, from which drawing the perpendiculars MI, NO, RV, PS, to the axis DO, they will be the four values of z , that is, the four roots of the equation $z^4 - 5aaz^2 + 2a^3z + 3a^4 = 0$. The two IM, ON, will be positive, and the other two VR, SP, will be negative. For, as z of the determinate equation, (that is to say, every one of the roots of the same,) ought to be common to both the *loci*, this can happen only in the points M, N, R, P, in which these two *loci* intersect each other. Therefore the right lines MI, NO, RV, SP, which express z , will be the four roots of the determinate equation proposed.

When two of the roots will be equal, when nothing, when imaginary.

192. Hence it is plain, that the nearer the points M, N, approach to each other, so much the less will be the difference of the ordinates IM, ON. So that when one point falls on another, (in which case the two curves will no longer cut but touch each other,) the two ordinates become equal, or the equation will have two equal roots. Also, if the curves cut each other at the vertex, in which place the ordinate is nothing, the equation will have one of its roots equal to nothing. And lastly, if the two curves neither cut nor touch in any point, the roots of the proposed equation will be imaginary or impossible.

The *loci* should be such, as will supply the simplest construction.

193. Now, in the introduction of the new unknown quantity, it should be endeavoured, that it may be done in such a manner, as that the two *loci* may be the simplest possible, in respect of the degree of the proposed equation. That is to say, if the equation be of the third or fourth degree, the two *loci* should be of the second, that is, conic sections. And it might be convenient, as any one would think, that one of them should always be a circle, as being the simplest curve. But it ought to be considered, that, by determining one of the *loci* to be a circle, the equation to the other *locus* in many cases may become perplexed; and therefore in such cases I should prefer any other *locus* before the circle, if it would afford a greater simplicity. If the equation be of the fifth or sixth degree, the two *loci* may be one of the second, and the other of the third. If it be of the seventh or eighth, they should be one of the second, and one of the fourth; or two of the third, first reducing that of the eighth to the ninth. And so on, observing the same analogy.

Taking, therefore, this equation of the fourth degree, $x^4 + 2bx^3 + acx^2 - a^2dx - a^3f = 0$, assume the equation (I.) $xx + bx = ay$, and, by squaring, it will be $x^4 + 2bx^3 + b^2x^2 = a^2y^2$, and therefore $x^4 + 2bx^3 = a^2y^2 - b^2x^2$. In the proposed equation let this value be substituted instead of $x^4 + 2bx^3$, and there will arise this other equation, (II.) $yy - \frac{b^2x^2}{a^2} + \frac{cx^2}{a} - dx - af = 0$.

Now,

Now, putting the value of xx obtained from the first equation, that is, $ay - bx$, in the second term of this, and letting the third term alone, there will arise

$$(III.) yy - \frac{bb}{a}y + \frac{b^3}{a^2}x + \frac{c}{a}x^2 - dx - af = 0. \text{ Or, substituting the}$$

value of xx in the third term of the same equation, letting the second term

$$\text{alone, there will arise (IV.) } yy - \frac{bb}{aa}xx + cy - \frac{bc}{a}x - dx - af = c.$$

$$\text{And in this, putting the value of } xx, \text{ it will be (V.) } yy + cy - \frac{bb}{a}y - \frac{bc}{a}x$$

$- dx - af = 0$. Lastly, if from this be subtracted the first made equal to nothing, or $xx + bx - ay = 0$, and then adding it to the same, there will

$$\text{arise from the first operation (VI.) } yy + cy - \frac{bb}{a}y + ay - xx - bx - \frac{bc}{a}x$$

$$+ \frac{b^3}{a^2}x - dx - af = 0; \text{ and from the second, (VII.) } yy + cy - \frac{bb}{a}y$$

$$- ay + xx + bx - \frac{bc}{a}x + \frac{b^3}{a^2}x - dx - af = 0.$$

194. It is plain, that the first equation is a *locus* to the *Apollonian* parabola. To distinguish these *loci*. To distinguish the rest, we must make use of the reductions explained at § 127, 128, by which we shall find, that the second will be a *locus* to the parabola, when it is $ac = bb$; to the ellipsis, when ac is greater than bb ; and, finally, to the hyperbola, when ac is less than bb . The third will be to an ellipsis, which will degenerate into a circle, when it is $c = a$, and the co-ordinates are at right angles. The fourth will be to an hyperbola, which besides will be equilateral, if it is $b = a$. The fifth will be to a parabola. The sixth will be to the equilateral hyperbola. The seventh will be to the circle, when the angle of the co-ordinates is a right angle.

From hence we may make choice of such a combination of the two *loci*, for the construction of the proposed Problem, as shall be thought most convenient.

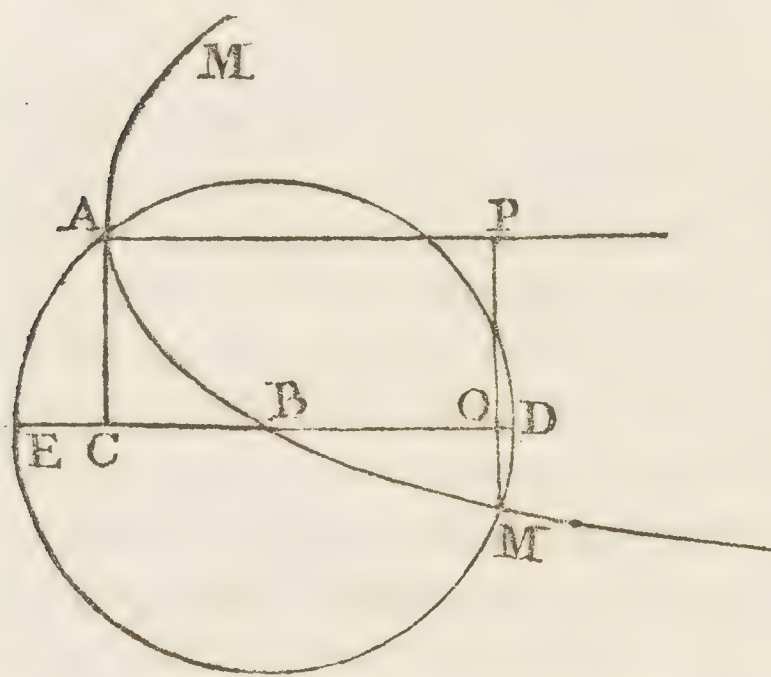
195. If the second term of the proposed equation had been negative, we should have made $xx - bx = ay$; and the equations thence arising would have been the same as before, only changing the sign of those terms, in which the letter b is of odd dimensions. And if the proposed equation had at first been without the second term, I should have taken $xx = ay$. Therefore, expunging the terms in which b is found in the other equations, they would have been such as this case requires. Cautions to be observed.

196. In the proposed equations, the second term being $\pm 2bx^3$, we should take the *locus* to the parabola $xx \pm bx = ay$, rather than $xx = ay$; because thus the other *loci* which arise have not the rectangle xy , and therefore are constructed with the more ease. Construction of a cubic equation, for example, by a parabola and a circle.

EXAMPLE I.

Let the equation be of the third degree, $x^3 - aax + 2a^3 = 0$. Let it be multiplied by $x = 0$, to reduce it to the fourth degree; whence it will be $x^4 - aax^2 + 2a^3x = 0$; which is required to be constructed by means of a parabola and a circle. As the second term is wanting, make $xx = ay$, a *locus* to the parabola. Then substituting, instead of x^4 and x^2 , their values $aayy$ and ay , it will be $yy - ay + 2ax = 0$; to which adding the first equation $xx - ay = 0$, we shall have the equation $yy - 2ay + 2ax + xx = 0$, which is a *locus* to the circle.

Fig. 96.



With radius $BD = \sqrt{2aa}$ let the circle ADME be described, and make $BC = a$, and also the ordinate $CA = CB = a$. From the point A drawing the indefinite line AP parallel to ED, and on it taking the absciffes $AP = y$, and making the ordinate $PM = x$, this will be the *locus* of the equation $yy - 2ay + 2ax + xx = 0$. Upon the axis AP, on which are taken the y 's, with vertex A let the *Apollonian* parabola MAM of the equation $xx = ay$ be described, which shall cut the circle in two points A, M; from whence the ordinates being drawn, they shall be the the real roots of the equation $x^4 - aax^2 + 2a^3x = 0$, and two will be imaginary.

But at the point A the ordinate is nothing, and therefore one of the roots will be $x = 0$, as it ought to be; it being now introduced by multiplying the proposed equation by $x = 0$. Therefore PM will be the real negative root of the equation $x^3 - aax + 2a^3 = 0$, and the other two will be imaginary. If I had multiplied the proposed equation by x equal to some quantity, the circle would have cut the parabola in two points out of the vertex, one of which would have given me the introduced root, and the other that of the proposed equation.

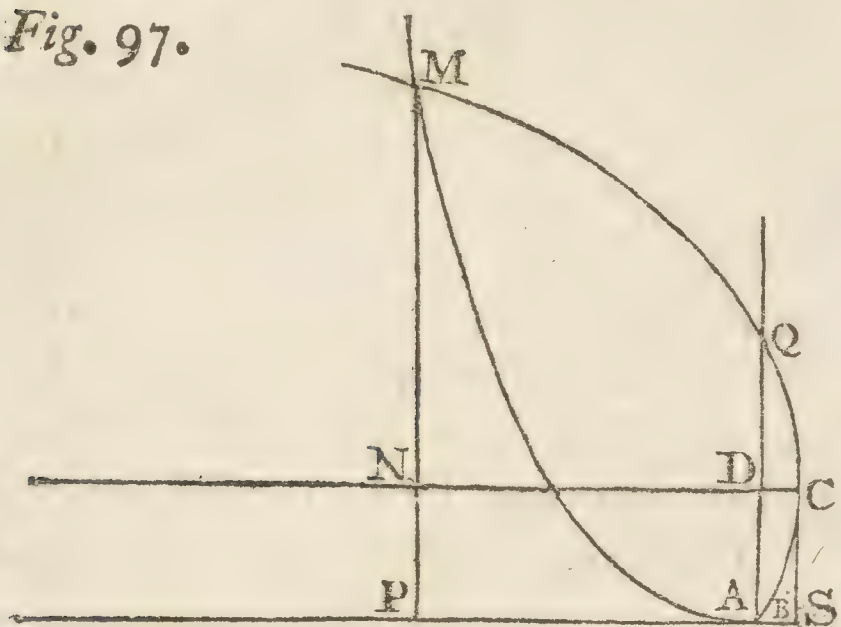
Now, to show that PM is one of the roots of the equation $x^4 - aax^2 + 2a^3x = 0$, it may be considered, that, from the nature of the circle, it is $EO \times OD = OM^2$. But $OM = -x - a$, $EO = y + \sqrt{2aa} - a$, and $OD = a - y + \sqrt{2aa}$. Therefore $xx + 2ax + aa = aa + 2ay - yy$.

But, by the equation of the parabola AM, it is $xx = ay$, and therefore $\frac{x^4}{aa} = yy$.
Then

Then substituting these values of y and yy , and reducing the equation to nothing, it will be $x^4 - aax^2 + 2a^3x = 0$, which is the very equation of the fourth degree, whose roots we were to extract.

197. If we would construct the equation $x^4 - aax^2 + 2a^3x = 0$ by means—By two of two parabolas, it would be convenient to make use of the equation found above, $yy - ay + 2ax = 0$; and the *locus* of this, together with the parabola of the equation $xx = ay$, might determine the roots required.

Fig. 97.



Therefore, with parameter $= 2a$, let there be described the parabola MCA, in which make $CD = \frac{1}{2}a$. And letting fall $DA = \frac{1}{2}a$, which will meet the parabola in the point A, and through that point drawing the indefinite line AP parallel to the axis CD; and taking the absciss x from the point A, positive towards B and negative towards P, and the ordinates $PM = y$, this will be the *locus* of the equation $yy - ay + 2ax = 0$. Then with vertex A, to the axis AQ, let the

other parabola MAS of the equation $xx = ay$ be described; this will cut the first in the points A, M. And letting fall the perpendicular MP, it will give the negative root AP of the proposed equation. And because at the point A the perpendicular is nothing, therefore there is no other root; just as it ought to be, the proposed equation being multiplied by $x = 0$.

For, in the parabola MCA, it being $CN = -x + \frac{1}{2}a$, and $NM = y - \frac{1}{2}a$, it will be, by the property of this parabola, $\frac{1}{4}aa - 2ax = yy - ay + \frac{1}{4}aa$; and substituting the values of y and yy , which are given by the first equation to the parabola MAS, that is, $xx = ay$, and ordering the equation, we shall have at last $x^4 - aax^2 + 2a^3x = 0$, which is the equation of the fourth degree, of which the roots were required.

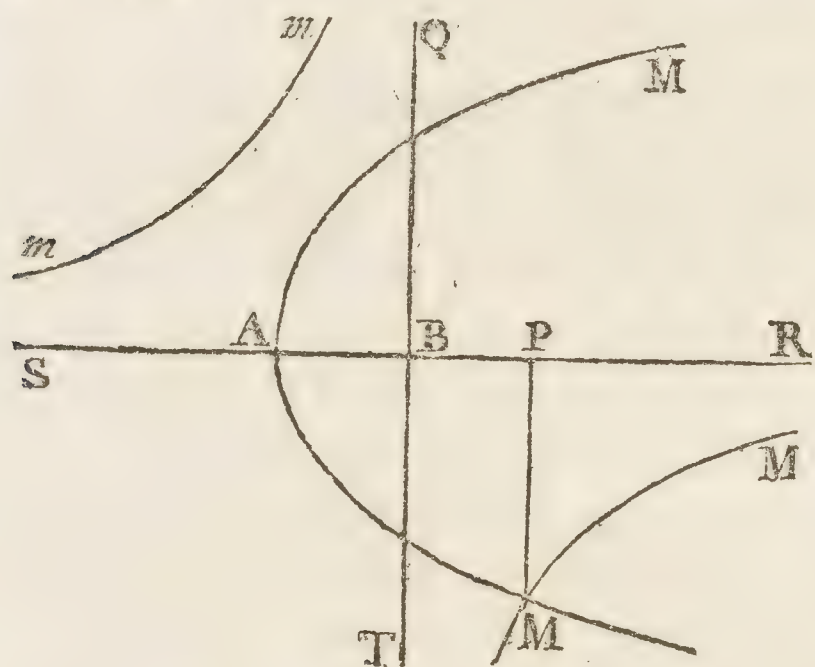
198. Now, if I had intended to have made use of the parabola, and of the —By a parabola and an equilateral hyperbola, it would have sufficed, from the same equation $yy - ay + 2ax = 0$, to have subtracted the first equation $xx - ay = 0$, and the equation $yy + 2ax - xx = 0$ would have arisen from thence, which is a *locus* to the equilateral hyperbola; which, being constructed, would have given me the roots required, by means of its intersections with the parabola of the equation $xx = ay$.

199. Finally, if I had desired to solve the Problem by the circle and the —By a circle and hyperbola, I should have constructed the third equation $yy - 2ay + 2ax + xx = 0$, a *locus* to the circle, and the fourth equation $yy + 2ax - xx = 0$, a *locus* to the hyperbola, as is seen before; the intersections of which *loci* would have given me the roots required.

These equations constructed by various *loci*, with examples.

200. But, without multiplying by x the equation proposed, $x^3 - aax + 2a^3 = 0$, we might have constructed it after the following manner, when we do not choose to introduce one *locus* rather than another. Make therefore $xx = ay$, and, instead of xx , put it's value ay in the equation, and there will arise the equation $xy - ax + 2aa = 0$, a *locus* to the hyperbola between it's asymptotes.

Fig. 98.



Therefore let the two indefinite right lines SR, QT, cut each other at right angles, and let these be the asymptotes of the two hyperbolas MM, mm , having the constant rectangle $-2aa$; taking the abscisses from the point A, distant from the point B by the quantity a . At the vertex A, to the axis AR, with the parameter $= a$, let the parabola of the first equation $xx = ay$ be described; it will cut the hyperbola MM in the point M. Then drawing the ordinate PM, it will be the real and negative root of the proposed equation.

For, by the property of the hyperbola MM, it will be $BP \times PM = -2aa$, that is, $xy - ax = -2aa$. And, by the property of the parabola AM, we shall have $y = \frac{xx}{a}$. Therefore, instead of y , substituting it's value, and ordering the equation, it will be $x^3 - aax + 2a^3 = 0$, the equation proposed.

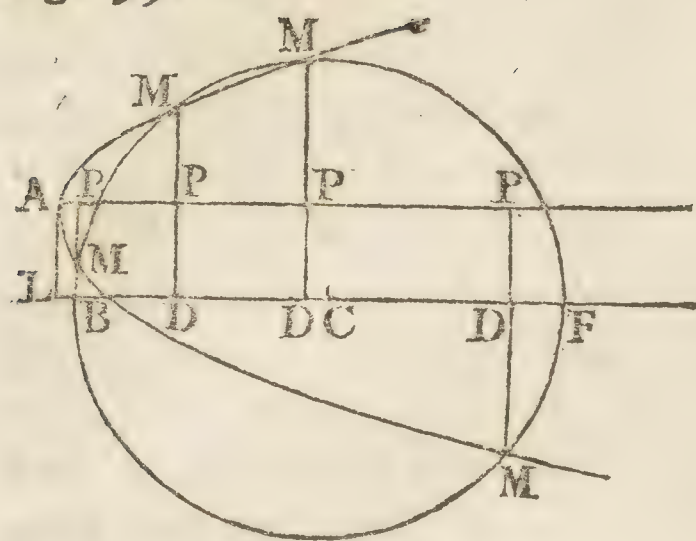
In general, all equations of the third degree may always be constructed after this manner, without being reduced to the fourth: by a parabola, and an hyperbola between the asymptotes.

EXAMPLE II.

Let there be given the equation of the fourth degree, $z^4 - 5a^2z^2 + 2a^3z + 3a^4 = 0$, which is to be constructed by means of a parabola and a circle. Take the equation $ax = zz$, square it, and in the equation proposed, instead of z^4 and z^2 , substitute their values, and there will arise a second equation, $xx - 5ax + 2ax + 3aa = 0$, from whence subtracting and then adding the first equation $zz - ax = 0$, we shall have, in the first case, a third equation, $xx - 4ax + 2ax + 3aa + zz = 0$; and in the second case, a fourth equation, $xx - 6ax + 2ax + 3aa + zz = 0$; which is a *locus* to the circle, and therefore I shall make use of it to construct the proposed equation of the fourth degree.

With

Fig. 99.



With radius $= \sqrt{7aa}$ let there be described a circle BMF, and from the centre C towards B taking the line $CL = 3a$, and from the point L make $LA = a$, perpendicular to the diameter, from the point A draw the indefinite right line AP parallel to the diameter BF; it will be $AP = x$, and the corresponding ordinates in the circle $PM = z$. And therefore A will be the vertex, and AP the axis of the parabola of the equation $ax = zz$.

Whence, with the vertex A, axis AP, and parameter $= a$, describing the parabola AM, it will meet the circle in four points M, from whence drawing the perpendiculars PM to the axis AP, they will be the roots of the proposed equation, two being positive and two negative.

For, producing PM to D, if there be occasion, it will be, by the nature of the circle, $BD \times DF = DM^2$. But $DM = z + a$, $BD = x - 3a + \sqrt{7aa}$, and $DF = -x + 3a + \sqrt{7aa}$. Therefore $zz + 2az + aa = -xx + 6ax - 2aa$; but, by the nature of the parabola AM, it is $ax = zz$, and $xx = \frac{z^4}{aa}$. Therefore, making a substitution of these values, and ordering the equation, and bringing the terms all to one side, it will be $z^4 - 5aaz^2 + 2a^3z + 3a^4 = 0$, which is the equation proposed.

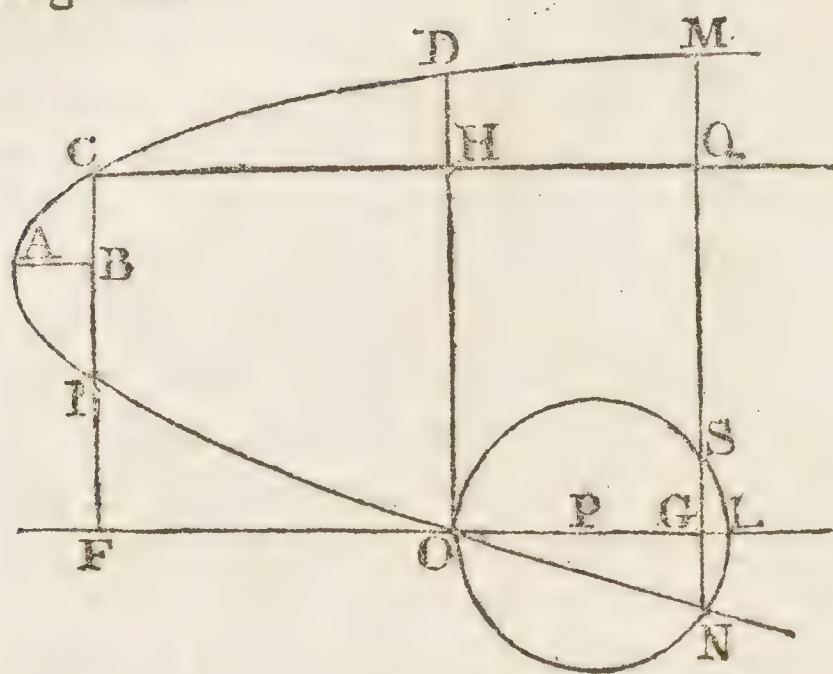
EXAMPLE III.

Let there be given an equation of the third degree, $x^3 - 3aax + 5a^3 = 0$, and let it be multiplied by $x + 2a$, that it may be reduced to one of the fourth degree; it will be $x^4 + 2ax^3 - 3aax^2 - a^3x + 10a^4 = 0$.

Take the equation to a parabola $xx + ax = ay$, which, by squaring, will become $x^4 + 2ax^3 + aax^2 = aayy$. Let the value of it's two first terms, $x^4 + 2ax^3$, that is, $aayy - aaxx$, be substituted in the equation, and there will arise (II.) $yy - 4xx - ax + 10aa = 0$. And in this, instead of xx , substituting it's value $ay - ax$, there arises (III.) $yy - 4ay + 3ax + 10aa = 0$; from thence subtracting the first, $xx + ax - ay = 0$, and also adding it, there will arise these two equations, (IV.) $yy - 3ay + 2ax + 10aa - xx = 0$ in the first case, and (V.) $yy - 5ay + 4ax + 10aa + xx = 0$ in the second case. I shall make use of the first locus, and also of the last.

For

Fig. 100.



For the construction of the last, let the circle OSN be described, with radius $OP = \frac{1}{2}a$; and, producing it to F, that it may be $OF = 2a$, and at the point F erecting the perpendicular $FC = FO = 2a$, draw the indefinite right line CQ parallel to FP. Taking any line whatever, $CQ = y$, the corresponding negative ordinates, QS, QN, will represent x , and the circle will be the *locus* of the fifth equation. Now take in FC the line $CB = \frac{1}{2}a$, and from the point B draw the perpendicular $BA = \frac{1}{4}a$. Then with vertex A, and with parameter $= a$, let

the parabola NAM be described, which shall be the *locus* of the first equation, taking the abscissas y on the right line CQ. From the points O, N, in which the parabola cuts the circle, raising the perpendiculars OH, NQ, these will be the two real negative roots of the equation, $x^4 + 2ax^3 - 3a^2x^2 - a^3x + 10a^4 = 0$, of the fourth degree which was proposed.

And because OH, taken negative, is equal to $2a$, which is the root introduced by the multiplication of the given equation into $x + 2a$, NL will be the real negative root of the proposed equation $x^3 - 3aax + 5a^3 = 0$, the other two roots being imaginary.

For, by the property of the circle OSL, it will be $OG \times GL = GNq$. But $OG = y - 2a$, $GL = 3a - y$, and $GN = -2a - x$. Therefore, making the substitutions, it will be $xx + 4ax + 10aa + yy - 5ay = 0$. But, from the equation to the parabola NAM, it will be $y = \frac{xx + ax}{a}$, and $yy = \frac{x^4 + 2ax^3 + aaxx}{aa}$; then substituting these values of y and yy in the equation to the circle, it will be at last $x^4 + 2ax^3 - 3aaxx - a^3x + 10a^4 = 0$, as it ought to be.

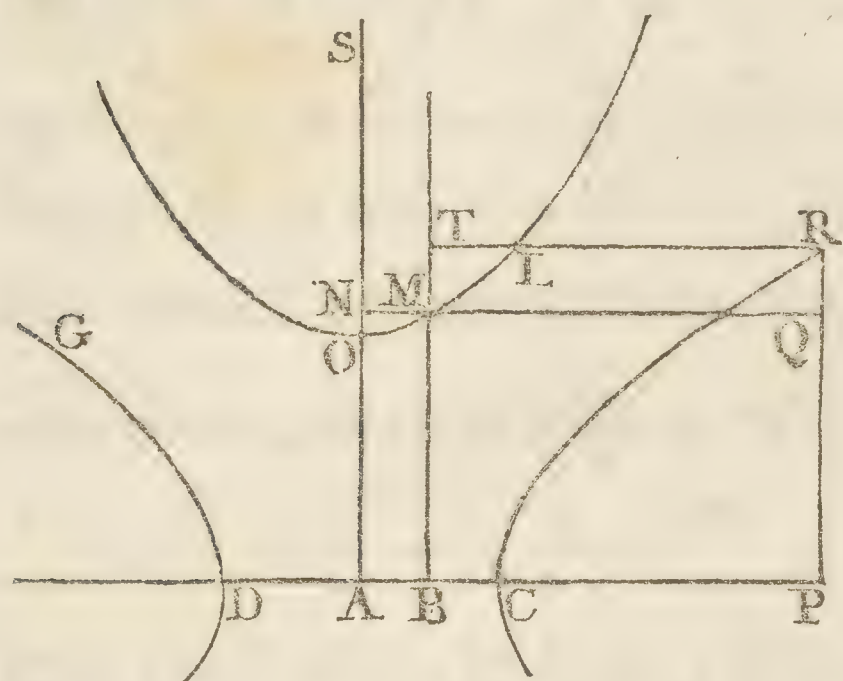
EXAMPLE IV.

Let the equation be $x^6 - 4aax^4 - 8a^3x^3 + 8a^4x^2 + 32a^5 = 0$; and because it is divisible by $x^2 - 4ax + 4aa$, and the quotient $x^4 + 4ax^3 + 8a^2x^2 + 8a^3x + 8a^4 = 0$ is an equation of the fourth degree, which we thus construct; take the equation $xx + 2ax = ay$, of which finding the square $x^4 + 4ax^3 + 4a^2x^2 = a^2y^2$, and, instead of $x^4 + 4ax^3$, substitute its value $a^2yy - 4aaxx$ in

in the equation, and there will arise (II.) $yy + 4xx + 8ax + 8aa = 0$; in which, if we put the value of xx , or $ay - 2ax$, there will arise (III.) $yy + 4ay + 8aa = 0$, from which, if we subtract the first, there arises (IV.) $yy + 5ay + 8aa - xx - 2ax = 0$; and lastly, if we add the first to the third, it will be (V.) $yy + 3ay + 8aa + xx + 2ax = 0$.

The second *locus* is imaginary. The third is a determinate equation, but its roots are imaginary. The fifth *locus* is also imaginary. But the fourth *locus* is real, and is to an equilateral hyperbola.

Fig. 101.



To the axis $DC = \sqrt{11}aa$, with centre A, let there be described the hyperbolas CR, DG. Take $AB = a$, and let the indefinite perpendicular BM be raised, in which take $BM = \frac{5}{2}a$; and from the point M let there be drawn MQ parallel to the axis DC. Taking the x 's from the point M upon MQ, the corresponding QR or MT will be the y 's, and the curve is the *locus* of the fourth equation. Producing QM to N, and making $MN = a$, and drawing NA to the centre of the hyperbola, take $NO = a$, and with vertex O, parameter $= a$, to the axis OS let the

parabola OM be described, which will pass through the point M. Then taking the y 's on MT, and the corresponding ordinates $TL = x$, this will be the *locus* of the first equation $xx + 2ax = ay$. But now, as these two *loci* can never intersect each other, as is evident, all the four roots of the equation $x^4 + 4ax^3 + 8a^2x^2 + 8a^3x + 8a^4 = 0$ will be imaginary. Whence the proposed equation $x^6 - 4a^2x^4 - 8a^3x^3 + 8a^4x^2 + 32a^5 = 0$ is found to have only two real roots, which are equal to each other, being each equal to $2a$.

201. But if, besides, we should be willing to construct equations of the third — By given and fourth degree, not only by the help of conical *loci*, which are to be thus *loci*, or such found, but of such of them as may be given, or similar to given, *loci*; which as are similar may be of use when a conic section is given in the state of a Problem: It may to given. be done after the following manner, supposing, however, that the equations of the third degree are reduced to the fourth, and that these are freed from their second term, if they have any.

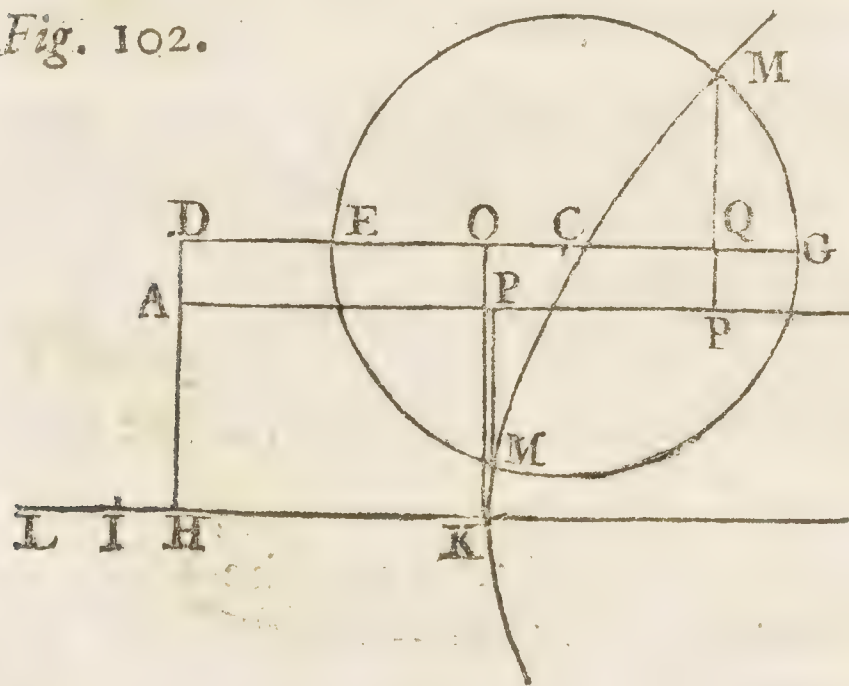
Yet I must here observe, that though, for the most part, it may be better to be determined to this conical *locus* which already enters into the Problem; yet we should always have it in view, that the use of this given *locus* ought not to supersede a greater simplicity of construction. For, in this case, without any regard to the given *locus*, it may be better to introduce two new *loci*.

Being willing then to make use of given *loci*, or such as are similar to those that are given, the artifice consists in introducing two indeterminate or general quantities into the equation, and to determine them afterwards as occasion may require. Therefore let the equation be $z^4 + abz^2 - acz + a^3d = 0$. Make $z = \frac{ax}{f}$, in order to introduce the first indeterminate f . Making the substitutions, it will be $x^4 + \frac{bffx^2}{a} - \frac{f^3cx}{a} + \frac{f^4d}{a} = 0$. Let us take the first *locus* (I.) $x^2 - fy = 0$; and, substituting the values of x^2 and x^4 , there will arise the second *locus* (II.) $y^2 + \frac{bf}{a}y - \frac{fc}{a}x + \frac{ffd}{a} = 0$. To this let be added the first, and we shall have (III.) $x^2 - fy + yy + \frac{bf}{a}y - \frac{fc}{a}x + \frac{ffd}{a} = 0$. Now, to introduce a second indeterminate g , let the first *locus* be multiplied by $\frac{g}{a}$, and we shall have $\frac{gx^2 - gfy}{a} = 0$; which, added to the second, will give (IV.) $y^2 + \frac{bf}{a}y - \frac{fc}{a}x + \frac{ffd}{a} + \frac{g}{a}x^2 - \frac{gf}{a}y = 0$; and, being subtracted, will give (V.) $y^2 + \frac{bf}{a}y - \frac{fc}{a}x + \frac{ffd}{a} + \frac{gf}{a}y - \frac{g}{a}x^2 = 0$.

The first *locus* and the second are to a parabola; the third to the circle, when the co-ordinates are at right angles; the fourth to the ellipsis; and the fifth to the hyperbola.

Now, let it be required, for example, to construct the equation by means of a given circle and a given hyperbola. Let us therefore assume the third and fifth *loci*; and as to the third, with radius $CG = \frac{f}{2a} \sqrt{cc - 4ad + bb - 2ab + aa}$,

Fig. 102.



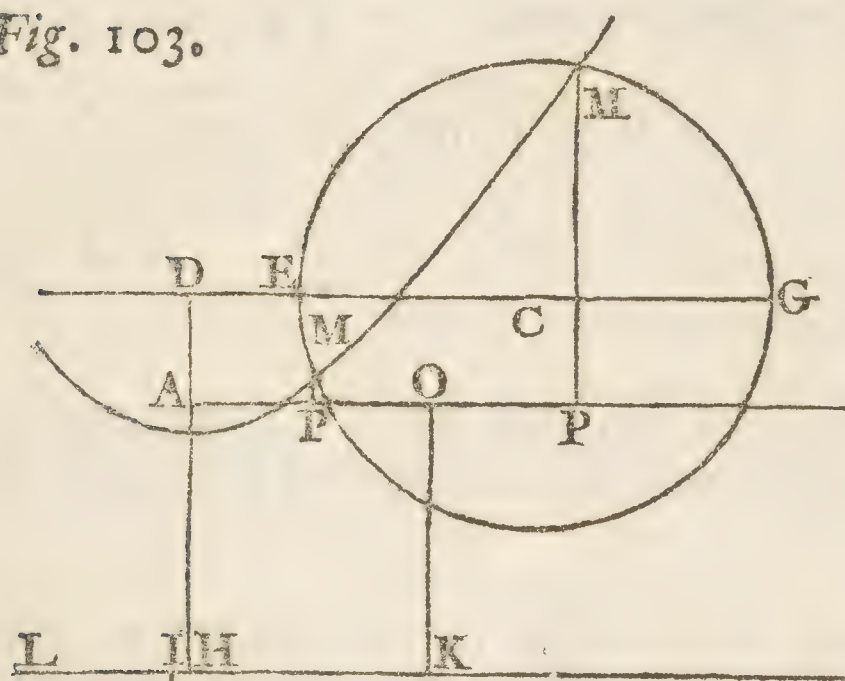
let the circle EMG be described, and, taking $CD = \frac{fc}{2a}$, from the point D let fall the perpendicular $DA = \frac{af - bf}{2a}$,

(supposing a to be greater than b ; for it must be raised the contrary way, when b is greater than a ;) then from the point A, on the right line AP parallel to DG, taking the abscisses $AP = x$, the corresponding PM will be the y , and the circle EMG will be the *locus* of the equation $x^2 - fy + y^2 + \frac{bf}{a}y - \frac{fc}{a}x + \frac{ffd}{a} = 0$.

As

As to the fifth *locus*; to construct it and combine it with the circle, through the point A, the origin of x , produce the right line DA to H, so that it may be $AH = \frac{gf + bf}{2a}$; and through the points A, H, draw AP, HK, parallel to DG. On HK, towards the point L, set off the portion $HI = \frac{fc}{2g}$, and with centre I, transverse axis $LK = \frac{f}{ga} \sqrt{aacc + 4a^2gd - ab^2g - ag^3 - 2abg^2}$, (supposing $cc + 4dg$ to be greater than $\frac{bbg + g^3 + 2bgg}{a}$), let the hyperbola KM be described, with parameter $KO = \frac{f}{aa} \sqrt{aacc + 4aagd - abbg - ag^3 - 2abgg}$; in which, if it be $AP = x$, $PM = y$, it will be the *locus* of the fifth equation. From the points M, in which it cuts the circle, drawing to AP the perpendiculars MP, the lines AP, AP, will be the roots of the equation $x^4 + \frac{bff}{a}x^2 - \frac{cf^2}{a}x + \frac{df^2}{a} = 0$. And, because it was made $z = \frac{ax}{f}$, and x is given, and also z , they will be the roots of the first proposed equation.

Fig. 103.



But, if we had supposed $cc + 4gd$ to be less than $\frac{bbg + 2bgg + g^3}{a}$, the *locus* of the fifth equation would be the hyperbola MM, half the transverse axis of which $= \frac{f}{2a} \sqrt{\frac{bbg + 2bgg + g^3 - acc - 4agd}{g}}$, the conjugate semiaxis $IK = \frac{f}{2g} \sqrt{\frac{b^2g + 2bg^2 + g^3 - ac^2 - 4agd}{a}}$, and the parameter KO of the conjugate axis $= \frac{f}{a} \sqrt{\frac{bbg + 2bgg + g^3 - acc - 4agd}{a}}$.

This supposed, to satisfy the first condition, that it shall be a given circle, let its radius be $= r$, and then it would be $r = \frac{f}{2a} \sqrt{cc - 4ad + bb - 2ab + aa}$, from which equation the value of the assumed indeterminate may be derived, or $f = \frac{2ar}{\sqrt{cc - 4ad + bb - 2ab + aa}}$. And then the circle described, EGM, will be that, the radius of which is $= r$.

To satisfy the second condition, that the hyperbola may be given also, let $2t$ be the given transverse axis, and p the given parameter. Then it will be

$$2t = \frac{f}{g} \sqrt{cc + 4gd - \frac{bbg + g^3 + 2bgg}{a}}, \text{ and } f = \frac{2gt}{\sqrt{cc + 4gd - \frac{bbg + g^3 + 2bgg}{a}}}.$$

But it is also $p = \frac{f}{a} \sqrt{cc + 4dg - \frac{bbg + g^3 + 2bgg}{a}}$; therefore, instead of f , putting it's value now found, it will be $p = \frac{2gt}{a}$, from whence we have the value of $g = \frac{ap}{2t}$. And putting this instead of g in the value of f , it will be

$$f = \frac{2apt}{\sqrt{4tcc + 8aptd - 2bbpt - \frac{aap^3}{2t} - 2abpp}}.$$

Wherefore the transverse diameter and the parameter of the hyperbola described (Fig. 102.) shall be truly the given lines $2t$ and p ; and thus as to the first case.

Then, as to the second, which is when $cc + 4dg$ is less than $\frac{bbg + g^3 + 2bgg}{a}$, let the conjugate axis of the given hyperbola be $LK = 2u$, and it's parameter

$$= q; \text{ then it will be } 2u = \frac{f}{g} \sqrt{\frac{bbg + 2bgg + g^3}{a} - cc - 4dg}, \text{ and } q = \frac{f}{a} \sqrt{\frac{bbg + 2bgg + g^3}{a} - cc - 4dg}.$$

Whence it will be found, by operating as before, $f = \frac{2aqu}{\sqrt{2bbuq + 2baqq + \frac{aaq^3}{2u} - 4ccuu - 8aduq}}$, and $g = \frac{aq}{2u}$. And the

hyperbola will have for it's conjugate axis $LK = 2u$, and for it's parameter to the said axis $KO = q$. And thus the Problem will be constructed by means of a given circle and a given hyperbola.

Now, if the hyperbola shall not be given, but ought to be similar to one given; that is, if the axis be to it's parameter in a given ratio, or as m to n ; because it has been seen above, that the ratio of the axis to the parameter is that of a to g , it will be sufficient to make the analogy, $a . g :: m . n$, and thence to have the value of $g = \frac{an}{m}$.

By making use of the same method, we may construct equations by means of any other given *loci*, or which are similar to those given. As, for example, by means of the aforesaid given circle, and of a given ellipsis, or like to a given one, by taking the fourth equation before, instead of the fifth.

EXAMPLE V.

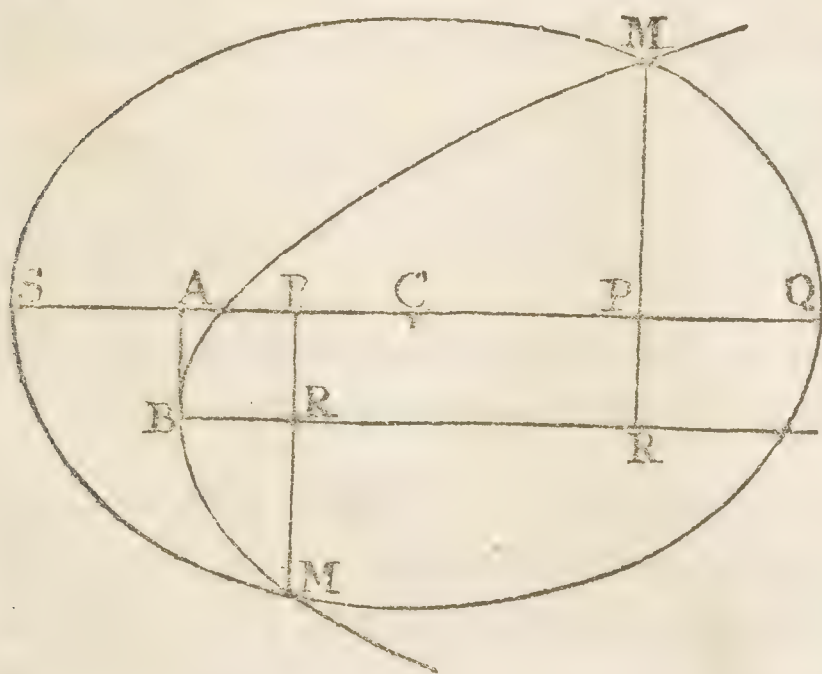
Let the equation be $x^4 - ax^3 - aax^2 - a^3x - 2a^4 = 0$, which it is required to construct by means of a parabola whose parameter $= a$, and of an ellipsis similar to one given, whose transverse axis is to the parameter in the given ratio of b to d .

Let the second term be taken away by the substitution of $x = z + \frac{1}{4}a$, and the transformed equation will be $z^4 - \frac{11}{8}aaz^2 - \frac{13}{8}a^3z - \frac{595}{256}a^4 = 0$.

I put $z = \frac{ay}{f}$, to introduce the first indeterminate f , and it will be $y^4 - \frac{11}{8}ffy^2 - \frac{13}{8}f^3y - \frac{595}{256}f^4 = 0$. Now, taking for the first *locus* $yy = fq$ to the parabola, and making a substitution of the values of y^4 and y^2 , we shall have the second *locus* also to the parabola, $qq - \frac{11}{8}fq - \frac{13}{8}fy - \frac{595}{256}ff = 0$. Now, because the given parabola has its parameter $= a$, we may here make use of the first *locus*, by taking $f = a$, and therefore it will be $yy = aq$. And substituting the value of f in the second, (for, the ellipsis not being given, the first indeterminate f , in respect of this, is still arbitrary,) it will be $qq - \frac{11}{8}aq - \frac{13}{8}ay - \frac{595}{256}aa = 0$.

Now let the first *locus* be multiplied by $\frac{g}{a}$, in order to introduce the second indeterminate g , and it will be $\frac{gyy - agq}{a} = 0$, which, being added to the second, will give the third *locus*, $qq - \frac{11}{8}aq - \frac{13}{8}ay - \frac{595}{256}a^2 + \frac{gyy - agq}{a} = 0$, which is to an ellipsis.

Fig. 104.



For the construction of this third *locus*, we should have the ellipsis MSQ to describe, with the transverse axis $SQ =$

$$2\sqrt{\frac{716a^2g + 176ag^2 + 64g^3 + 169a^3}{256g}}, \text{ and with}$$

$$\text{parameter} = \frac{2a}{g}\sqrt{\frac{716a^2g + 176ag^2 + 64g^3 + 169a^3}{256g}}.$$

But, because in this the ratio of the axis to the parameter is that of g to a , which, by the given condition, ought to be that of b to d , it will be $g = \frac{ab}{d}$. And therefore, instead of g , substituting its value,

value, the ellipsis MSQ must be described with the transverse axis = $\frac{1}{8d} \sqrt{\frac{716a^2bd^2 + 176a^2b^2d + 64a^2b^3 + 169a^2d^3}{b}}$, and with parameter = $\frac{1}{8b} \sqrt{\frac{716a^2bd^2 + 176a^2b^2d + 64a^2b^3 + 169a^2d^3}{b}}$.

Now, from the centre C taking $CA = \frac{11ad + 8ab}{16d}$, and from the point A letting fall the perpendicular $AB = \frac{13d}{16b}$, if from the point B be drawn BR parallel to the axis SQ, taking any line $BR = q$, it will be $RM = y$, and the ellipsis will be the *locus* of the third equation $qq - \frac{11}{8}aq - \frac{13}{8}ay - \frac{595}{256}aa + \frac{8yy - agq}{a} = 0$.

With vertex B, axis BR, and parameter = a , let the parabola MBM of the equation $yy = aq$ be described; it will cut the ellipsis in two points M, M. From which points drawing RM, RM, perpendicular to the right line BR, they will be the two real roots of the proposed equation.

For, by the property of the ellipsis, it will be $SP \times PQ$ to PMq , so is the transverse axis to the parameter. But $CP = q - \frac{11ad + 8ab}{16d}$, and therefore $SP = \frac{1}{16d} \sqrt{\frac{716a^2bd^2 + 176a^2db^2 + 64a^2b^3 + 169a^2d^3}{b}} + q - \frac{11ad + 8ab}{16d}$,

and $PQ = \frac{1}{16d} \sqrt{\frac{716a^2bd^2 + 176a^2db^2 + 64a^2b^3 + 169a^2d^3}{b}} - q + \frac{11ad + 8ab}{16d}$.

And besides, $PM = y - \frac{13ad}{16b}$. Therefore we shall have the analogy,

$$\frac{716a^2bd^2 + 176a^2b^2d + 64a^2b^3 + 169a^2d^3}{256bd^2} - q^2 + \frac{11daq + 8baq}{8d} - \frac{121a^2d^2 + 176a^2bd + 64a^2b^2}{256d^2}.$$

$yy - \frac{13ady}{8b} + \frac{169a^2d^2}{256b^2} :: \frac{1}{d} \cdot \frac{1}{b} :: b \cdot d$. And therefore the equation

$$\frac{595a^2bd^2}{256bd} - dqq + \frac{11daq + 8abq}{8} = byy - \frac{13ad}{8}y.$$

But, by the equation to the parabola, it is $yy = aq$. Therefore, substituting, instead of q and qq , their values $\frac{yy}{a}$ and $\frac{y^4}{a^2}$, and ordering the equation, dividing by d and multiplying

the terms by aa , it will be $y^4 - \frac{11aayy}{8} - \frac{13a^3y}{8} - \frac{595a^4}{256} = 0$. But, by making

the substitution of $z = \frac{ay}{f}$, (or making $y = z$, for $a = f$,) it will be

$z^4 - \frac{11}{8}a^2z^2 - \frac{13}{8}a^3z - \frac{595}{256}a^4 = 0$, which is the reduced equation; to the roots of which adding $\frac{1}{4}a$, they will be the roots of the equation proposed.

It was indeed unnecessary to take all this trouble about an Example, which, by nature, is not solid but plane; for the proposed equation is divisible by $x + a$, and by $x - 2a$. But, however, it will serve to show the use of this method.

202. Equations of the fifth and sixth degree are constructed by means of two *loci*, one of the third degree, and the other a conic section.

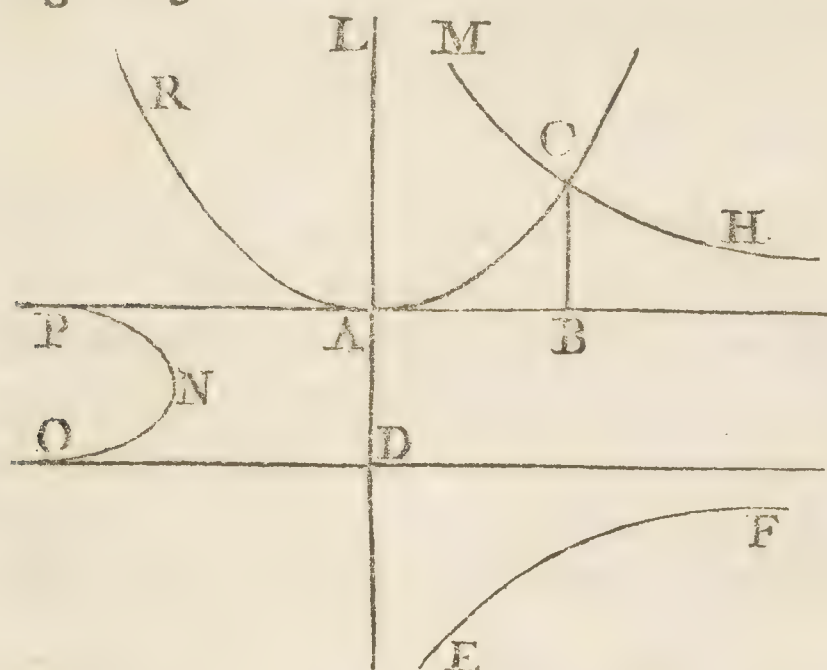
Equations
constructed of
the fifth and
sixth degree.

EXAMPLE VI.

Let the equation be $x^5 + aax^3 - a^5 = 0$. I take the *Apollonian* parabola $xx = ay$, and making the substitutions, there arises the second *locus* $xyy + axy - a^3 = 0$.

Hitherto I have not mentioned the construction of *loci* above the Conic Sections, having reserved the treating on these for the following Section; for thus order necessarily required. At present, therefore, let there be supposed,

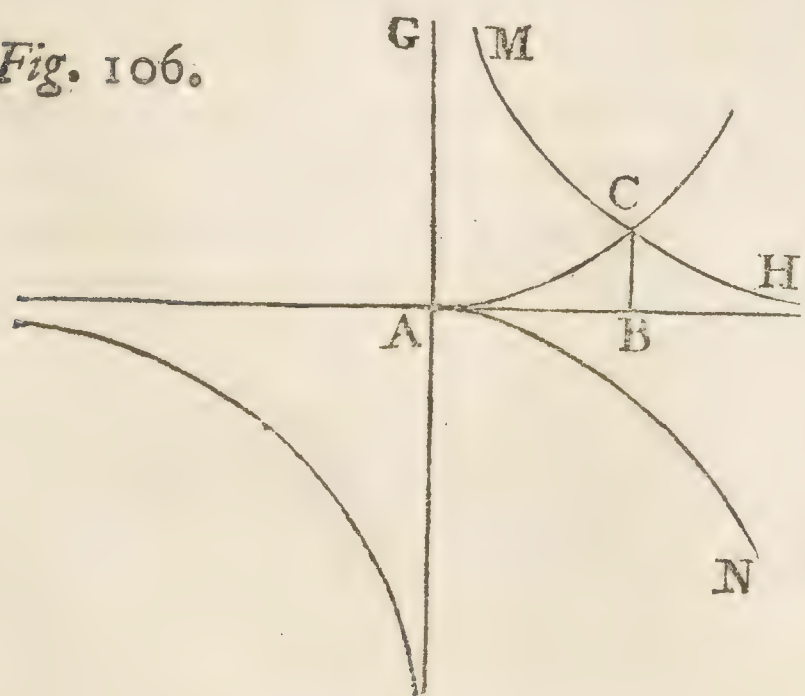
Fig. 105.



and also let there be described, a curve with three branches MCH, FE, PNO, whose equation is $xyy + axy - a^3 = 0$, in which AB represents the x 's, and BC the y 's. With vertex A, axis AL, and parameter $= a$, let the *Apollonian* parabola RAC be described. It will meet the branch MCH in the point C; and therefore, letting fall the perpendicular CB, it will be $AB = x$, the real and positive root of the proposed equation, and the other four will be imaginary. If we desire to construct the same equation by means of an hyperbola between its asymptotes,

and also by a *locus* of the third degree, make $xy = aa$, and, by substituting, it will be $x^3 + aax - ayy = 0$.

Fig. 106.

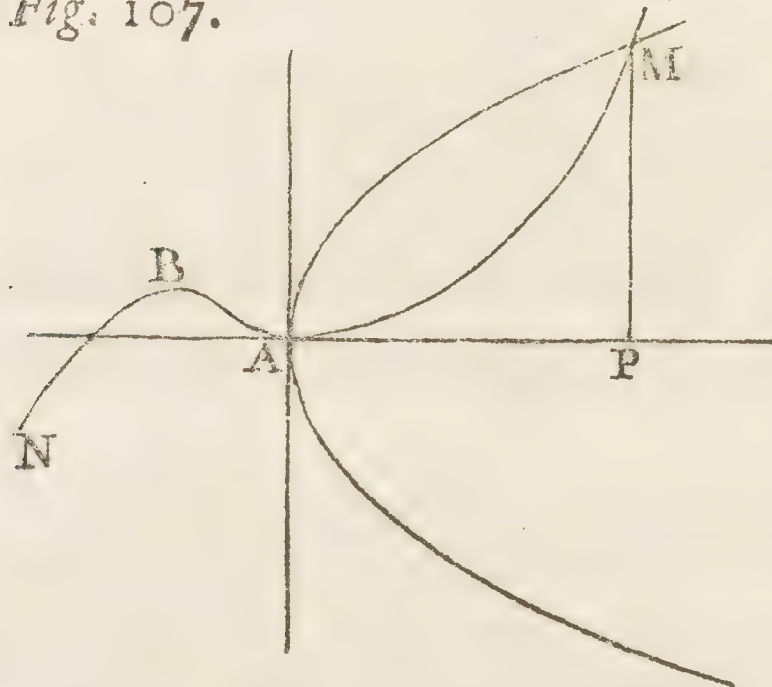


To axis AB, with absciss $AB = x$, and ordinate $BC = y$, let the curve CAN be described, which is the *locus* of the equation $x^3 + aax - ayy = 0$. And between the asymptotes AB, AG, let the hyperbola MCH of the equation $xy = aa$ be described, taking the x 's on the same axis AB; this will cut the first curve in the point C, from whence letting fall the perpendicular CB, it will be $AB = x$, the root of the equation proposed.

Now

Now I multiply the same equation by $x = 0$, in order to reduce it to the sixth degree, and I shall have $x^6 + aax^4 - a^5x = 0$. I take the same *locus* to the parabola $xx = ay$, and, making the substitution, there arises the second

Fig. 107.

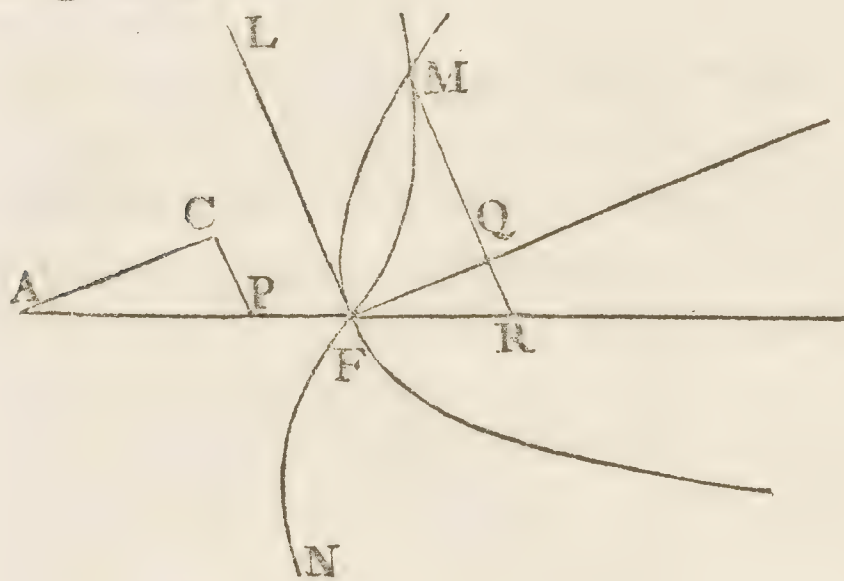


locus $y^3 + ay^2 - aax = 0$, which is the curve NBAM, taking the abscissæ $AP = y$, and the ordinates $PM = x$.

With vertex A, to the axis AP, with parameter $= a$, the *Apollonian* parabola AM of the equation $xx = ay$ being described, it will cut the said curve in the vertex A, which gives us one of the roots $x = 0$, the same that was introduced into the equation. Besides, it will cut it in the point M, and letting fall the perpendicular MP, it will be another root of the equation.

If we desire to make use of the first cubic parabola $x^3 = aay$, make the substitution in the equation $x^6 + a^2x^4 - a^5x = 0$, and there arises the second *locus*, $yy + xy - ax = 0$, to the *Apollonian* hyperbola.

Fig. 108.



On the indefinite line AP let the triangle ACP be described, being right-angled at C, (supposing, if you please, the angle of the co-ordinates of the equation $yy + xy - ax = 0$ to be right,) and let it be $AC \cdot CP :: 2 \cdot 1$. At the centre A, with the transverse semidiameter $AF =$

$a\sqrt{5}$, with the parameter $= \frac{2a}{\sqrt{5}}$, let the

Apollonian hyperbola FM be described; then from the point F drawing the indefinite line FQ parallel to AC, and taking

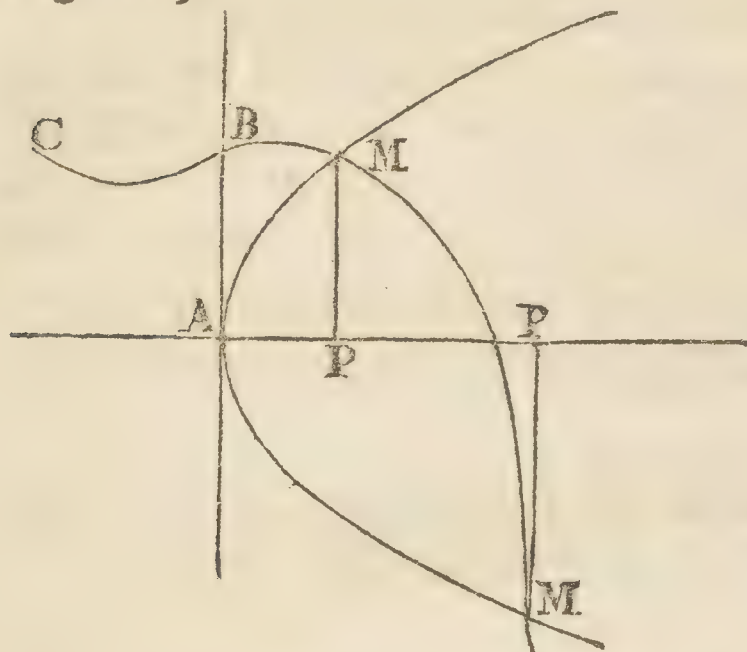
any line $FQ = x$, and QM parallel to CP and equal to y , this shall be the *locus* of the equation $yy + xy - ax = 0$. To the axis FL parallel to PC, let there be described the cubical parabola NFM of the equation $x^3 = aay$. This will cut the hyperbola in the vertex F, which gives us the root $x = 0$. And from the point M letting fall the perpendicular MQ upon FQ, this will determine the other root FQ of the equation $x^6 + aax^4 - a^5x$.

If our equation had had the second term, and if we had desired to make use of the cubic parabola, a second *locus* of the third degree would have been derived. Therefore we ought to make the second term to vanish, or make use of another *locus*.

EXAMPLE VII.

Let the equation of the sixth degree be this, $x^6 + ax^5 + a^3x - a^6 = 0$. I take the *locus* to the *Apollonian* parabola $xx = ay$. Making the substitutions, the second *locus* will be $y^3 + xy^2 + aax - a^3 = 0$, which is the curve CBM, taking the abscissas $AP = y$, and the ordinates $PM = x$.

Fig. 109.

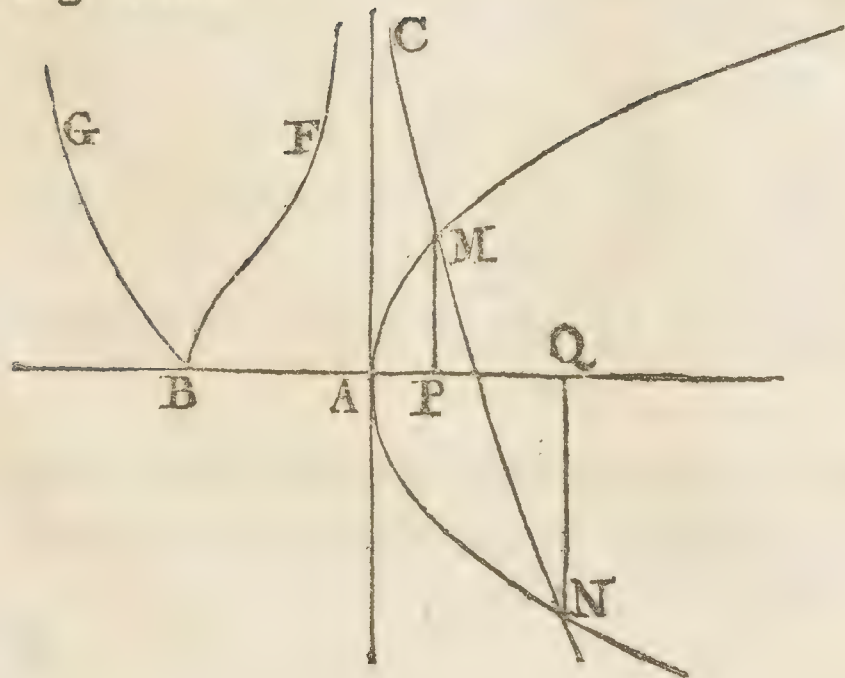


At the vertex A, with parameter $= a$, to the axis AP, let the parabola MAM of the equation $xx = ay$ be described. This will cut the said curve in two points M, M, from whence drawing to the axis the perpendiculars MP, MP, they will be the two roots of the proposed equation, of which one will be positive, the other negative, and the four others will be imaginary.

203. Equations of the seventh degree are constructed by means of two *loci* — of the seventh or eighth degree. — of the third, or else by one of the second and one of the fourth. But, because, by multiplying them by the unknown quantity, they are reduced to the eighth degree, and those of the eighth are constructed in like manner by a *locus* of the second, and another of the fourth, I shall content myself with giving an Example of those of the eighth degree.

EXAMPLE VIII.

Fig. 110.



Let the equation of the eighth degree be $x^8 + ax^7 + a^3x^5 - a^8 = 0$. Taking the equation to the *Apollonian* parabola $xx = ay$, and making the substitutions, there arises the second *locus* $x^4 + xy^3 + axy^2 - a^4 = 0$, which is the curve GBFCMN, taking the abscissas $AP = y$, and the ordinates $PM = x$. With vertex A, parameter $= a$, and axis AP, let the parabola of *Apollonius*, MAN, be described, belonging to the equation $xx = ay$. This

This will meet the aforesaid curve in the points M, N, from which drawing the perpendiculars MP, NQ, to the axis, they will be the two real roots, one positive, the other negative, of the proposed equation, and the others are imaginary.

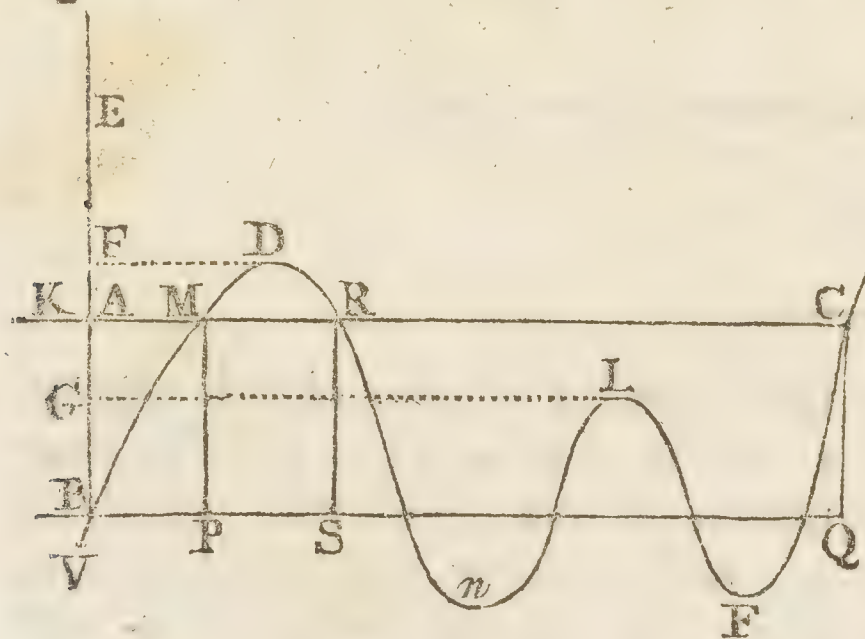
—or of higher degrees. 204. Here it may be observed, that equations of the ninth degree, (as well as those of the eighth, reduced to the ninth by multiplying them by the unknown quantity,) may always be constructed by means of two *loci* of the third degree, making the second term to vanish, if it have one.

Thus, in general, equations of the tenth degree may be constructed by means of a *locus* of the third degree, and one of the fourth. And, in like manner, those of eleven and twelve degrees, observing to reduce those of eleven to twelve, by multiplying them by the unknown quantity, and by making the second term of an equation of the twelfth degree to vanish, if it have any. And the like is to be understood of equations of higher degrees.

All equations may be constructed by a *locus* of the same degree. 205. Another manner of constructing equations of any degree may be, by means of a *locus* of the same degree as the equation proposed, and a right line; after the following manner.

Let it be an equation of the fifth degree, $x^5 - bx^4 + acx^3 - a^2dx^2 + a^3cx - a^4f = 0$. Let the last term a^4f be transposed, and taking one of the linear divisors, f , of the last term, make it equal to z , for example, and divide the equation by a^4 ; then we shall have $z = \frac{x^5 - bx^4 + acx^3 - a^2dx^2 + a^3cx}{a^4}$.

Fig. III.



On the indefinite line BQ describe the curve BMDRNLFC of this last equation, taking the x 's from the fixed point B. The ordinates PM, SR, &c. will be equal to z ; and therefore, from the point B draw the right line BA = f , parallel to the ordinates PM, SR, and through the point A draw the indefinite right line KC both ways, and parallel to BQ. From the points in which it cuts the curve, let fall the perpendiculars MP, RS, CQ; they will determine the abscissas BP, BS, BQ, which are the roots

of the equation proposed. Those from A towards Q are positive, and those the contrary way are negative.

If the right line AC shall touch the curve in any point, the corresponding abscissa x shall denote two equal roots; and if it meet it in no point, all the roots will be imaginary.

If the last term had had it's sign positive, we must have made $z = -f$, and therefore must have taken $BA = -f$, that is, below the point B, or on the negative side.

206. This method may be of use to verify constructions, which have been made by the combination of two curves, by confronting with each other the number of the roots, whether real or imaginary, positive or negative, which are found by each method. Use of this method.

PROBLEM I.

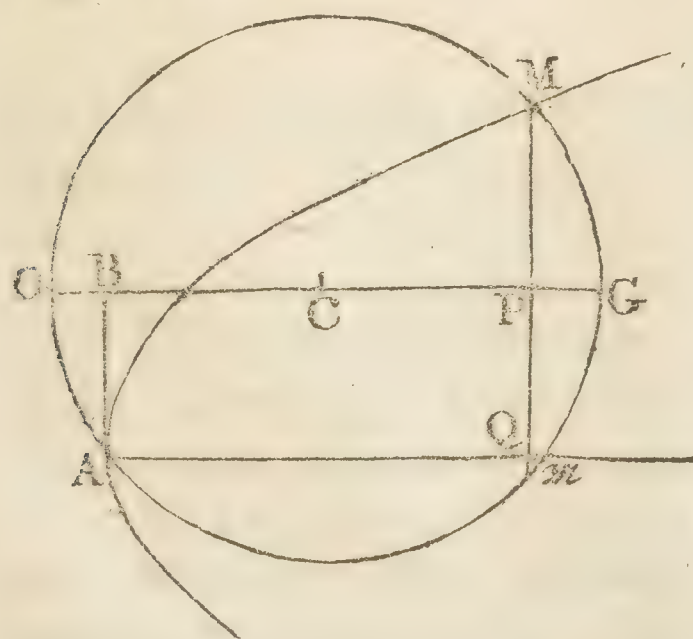
207. Between two given quantities, to find as many mean geometrical A Problem
proportionals as shall be required. to exemplify
this method.

Let the two given quantities be a and b , and let x be the first of the mean proportionals; they will form this geometrical progression following:

$a, x, \frac{x^2}{a}, \frac{x^3}{a^2}, \frac{x^4}{a^3}, \frac{x^5}{a^4}, \&c.$ Now, if we would have two mean proportionals, the fourth term of the progression must be b , and therefore we should have this equation $\frac{x^3}{a^2} = b$, or $x^3 = a^2b$. To construct this by the

help of a parabola and a circle, I reduce it to the fourth degree, by multiplying it by $x = 0$, and then it will be $x^4 - a^2bx = 0$. Taking the *locus* to the parabola $xx = ay$, and making the substitutions, there arises the second *locus* $yy - bx = 0$, which is also to the parabola; from which subtracting the first, there arises a third, $yy - bx - xx + ay = 0$, which is to the hyperbola; or, adding the first and second together, there arises, lastly, $yy - bx + xx - ay = 0$, a *locus* to the circle, supposing the co-ordinates to contain a right angle.

Fig. 112.



With radius $CG = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{aa + bb}$ let the circle OMA be described; and taking $CB = \frac{1}{2}a$, let fall the perpendicular $BA = \frac{1}{2}b$, which will meet the circle in the point A; from whence drawing AQ parallel to the diameter OG, and taking any portion $AQ = y$, it will be $QM = x$, and this circle will be the *locus* of the equation $yy - bx + xx - ay = 0$. With vertex A, axis AQ, and parameter $= a$, let the parabola $xx = ay$ be described, which will meet the circle in the point M; from whence letting fall the perpendicular MQ, it will be the root of the proposed equation. For the vertex of the parabola,

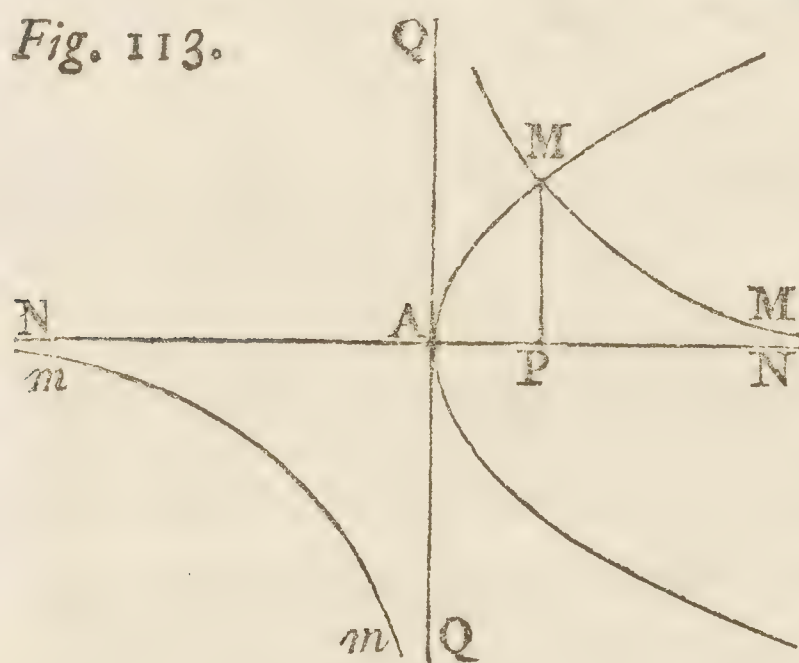
rabola, being in the periphery of the circle, will give the other root $x = 0$, which was introduced, and the other two are imaginary.

Taking the first and second equation, the Problem will be constructed by means of two *Apollonian* parabolas. Taking the first and third, it will be constructed by means of the parabola, and the hyperbola referred to it's diameters.

The same
otherwise
constructed.

208. Without multiplying the equation $x^3 - aab = 0$, it may be constructed by a parabola and an hyperbola between it's asymptotes; for, taking the locus $xx = ay$, and making the substitutions, there arises $xy = ab$.

Fig. 113.



Between the asymptotes NN, QQ, let there be described the hyperbola MM with the constant rectangle ab , and let AP be the y 's, and PM the x 's. To the axis AP, with the vertex A, the parameter $= a$, let the parabola AM be described; from the point M, in which it cuts the hyperbola, drawing the ordinate MP, it shall be the root of the proposed equation.

The first of the two mean proportionals being thus found, we have also the second, being equal to the absciss $AP = y = \frac{xx}{a}$.

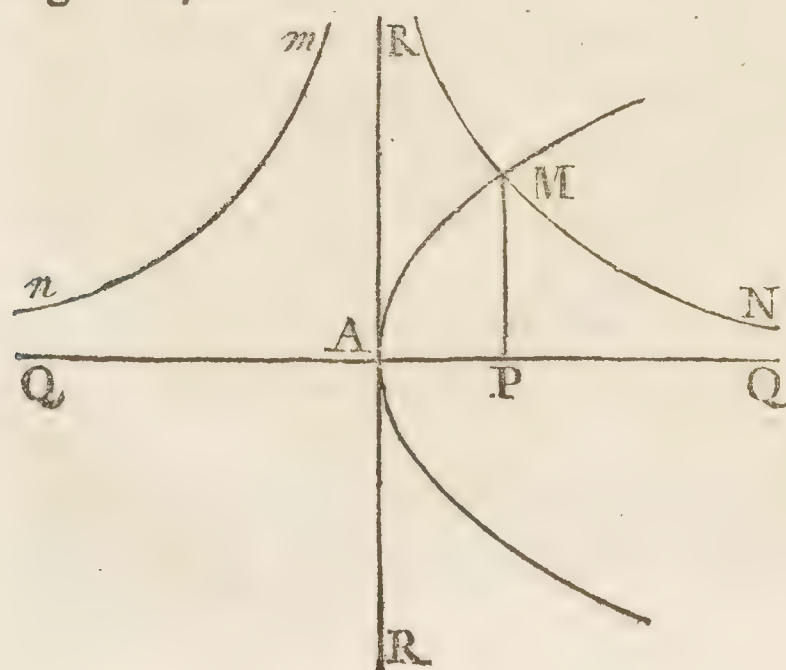
A simpler
case of the
same Pro-
blem.

209. To find three mean proportionals, the Problem becomes plane; for, having found, geometrically, that in the middle, which let be m for example, the mean between a and m will be the first of the three, and the mean between m and b will be the third.

Carried
higher.

210. Let it be required to find four mean proportionals; then b ought to be the sixth term of the progression, and therefore we shall have the equation $x^5 = a^4b$, or $x^5 - a^4b = 0$.

Fig. 114.



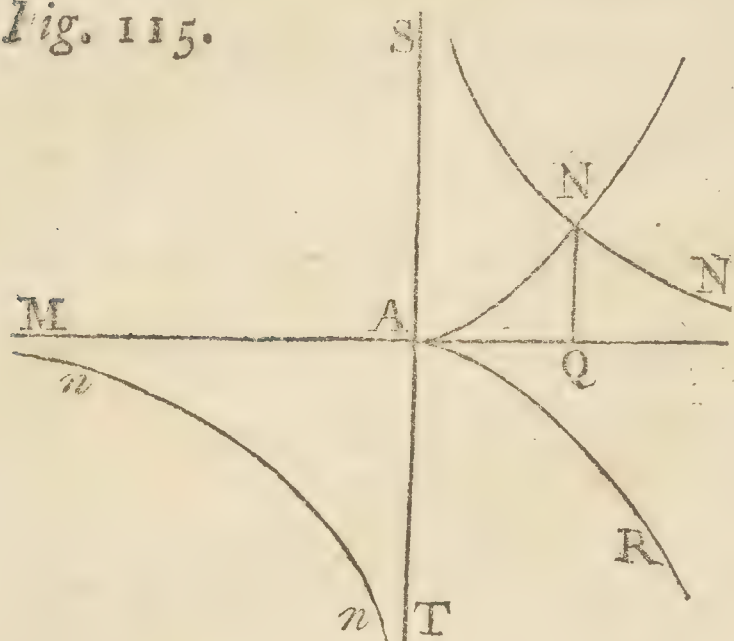
I take the locus to the *Apollonian* parabola $xx = ay$, and making the substitution, there arises the second locus $xyy - aab = 0$, which is an hyperboloid of the third degree. Therefore, between the asymptotes QQ, RR, let there be described the hyperboloid MN, mn , of the equation $xyy = aab$, making the absciss $AP = y$, and the ordinate $PM = x$. Now, to the diameter AQ, vertex A, describing the parabola of the equation $xx = ay$; and from the point M, in which it meets the

the hyperboloid, drawing the ordinate MP, it shall be the root of the equation $x^5 - a^4b = 0$, and the first of the mean proportionals required; by means of which the others may be found also.

211. Also, the Problem may be constructed by means of the *Apollonian* Constructed otherwise. hyperbola between it's asymptotes, and the second cubical parabola.

Make therefore $aa = xy$, the *locus* to the aforesaid hyperbola; and, instead of a^4 , substituting it's value xy , there arises the *locus* $x^3 = byy$, which is the second cubical parabola.

Fig. 115.



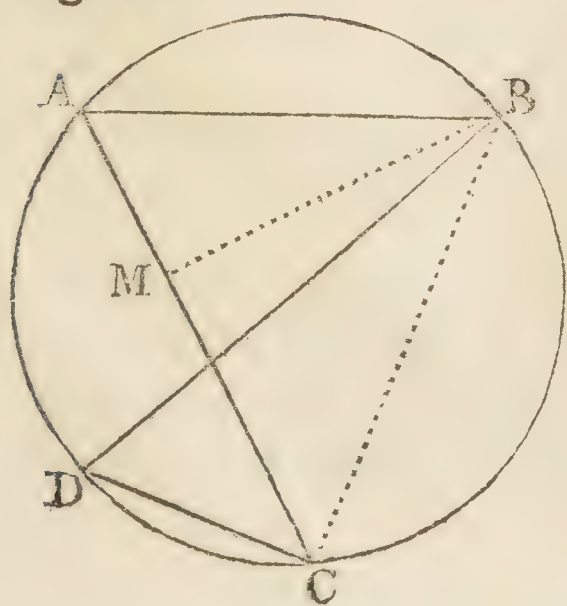
With the axis AQ let there be described the second cubical parabola RAN, in which AQ gives the x 's, and QN the y 's. And between the asymptotes ST, MQ, let there be described the hyperbola NN. And from the point N, in which it meets the parabola, let the ordinate NQ be drawn. Then will AQ be the root of the proposed equation, that is, the first of the four mean proportionals.

212. To find five mean proportionals the Problem is only cubical. For, Extended to higher cases. having found the middle term geometrically, which, for example, let be m ; to have the two means between a and m , is a cubical or solid Problem, as has been seen just now.

It may be easily perceived with a little attention, that the Problem for finding six mean proportionals may be constructed, either with a *locus* of the second, and one of the fourth degree, or with two of the third degree. But to find seven such, having found the middle one, the Problem will be reduced to the finding of three. And in the same way of reasoning, we may go on to greater numbers.

PROBLEM II.

Fig. 116.



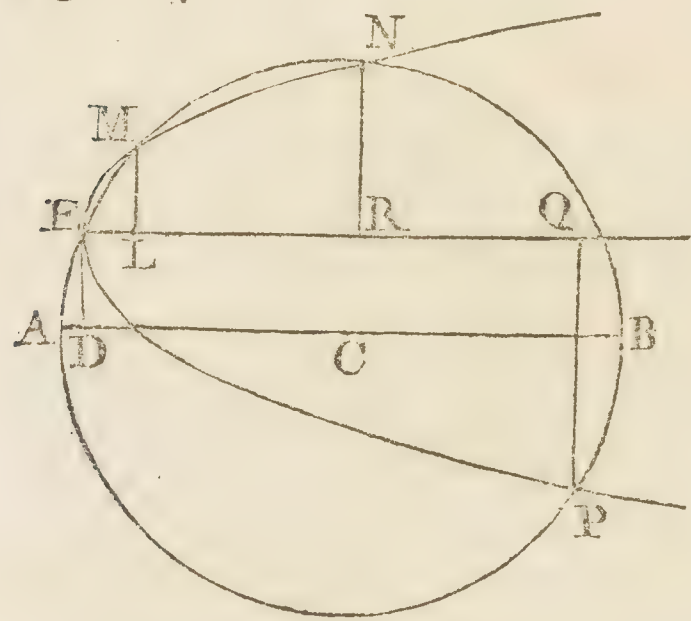
213. In the circle ABCD, having two chords The loci ex- given, BA, DC, which proceed from the extremities emplified by of the diameter BD, and the third chord AC being another Pro- given also; to find the diameter BD. blem.

Draw the chord BC, and make $AB = a$, $AC = b$, $DC = c$, and the diameter $BD = x$; and let fall the perpendicular BM upon the chord AC. Because the angle in the semicircle BCD is a right one, it will be $BC = \sqrt{xx - cc}$; and because the angles BAC, BDC, insist

infist on the same arch BC, and also the angles M, BCD, are right angles, the two triangles BCD, BAM, will be fimilar. Wherefore it will be $AM = \frac{ac}{x}$. But, by *Euclid*, ii. 13, it is $BCq = ABq + ACq - 2CA \times AM$; therefore the equation will be $xx - cc = aa + bb - \frac{2abc}{x}$, that is, $x^3 - ccx - aax - bbx + 2abc = 0$.

I multiply it by x , to reduce it to the fourth degree, and thus construct it, by means of the parabola and the circle. It is then $x^4 - c^2x^2 - a^2x^2 - b^2x^2 + 2abcx = 0$. Taking therefore the *locus* to the parabola, the parameter of which is the least of the three chords, which let be c for instance; that is, taking $xx = cy$, make the substitutions, and the second *locus* will arise $yy - \frac{ccy + aay + bby}{c} + \frac{2abx}{c} = 0$, which is also to the parabola. To this add the first equation $xx - cy = 0$, and we shall have finally a *locus* to a circle, taking the co-ordinates at right angles, that is, $yy - \frac{2cc + aa + bb}{c}y + \frac{2ab}{c}x + xx = 0$.

Fig. 117.



Therefore, with radius $AC = \sqrt{\frac{aabb + cmm}{cc}}$,

(for brevity-fake writing m for $\frac{2cc + aa + bb}{2c}$),

draw the circle AMBP, and taking $CD = m$, from the point D raise the perpendicular $DE = \frac{ab}{c}$, which will terminate in the periphery of

the circle at the point E; and drawing the indefinite line EQ parallel to the diameter AB, upon this line take any how $EL = y$, the corresponding ordinate will be $LM = x$, and this

circle is the *locus* of the equation. With vertex E, axis EQ, and parameter $= c$, let the parabola of the equation $xx = cy$ be described. This will cut the circle at the vertex in the point E, which will give the introduced root $x = 0$. It will cut it besides in the three points M, N, P, from whence, to the right line EQ letting fall the perpendiculars ML, NR, PQ, they shall be the three roots of the equation proposed, two positive and one negative. The first positive root ML cannot serve for this Problem; for, supposing $y = c$, it will be

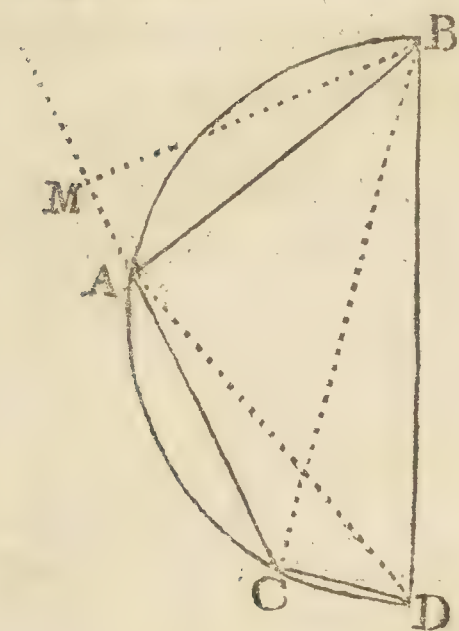
in the parabola, $x = c$, and in the circle, $x = -\frac{ab}{c} + \sqrt{\frac{aabb}{cc} + bb + aa + cc}$.

But this value of x , relatively to the circle, is greater than c , if the two chords a, b , be not equal to each other; and it is equal to c , if the two chords be equal. Wherefore the point in the parabola which corresponds to the absciss c , either falls in M, or falls within the circle. Therefore ML is either less than c , or,

or, at most, is equal to it, and therefore must needs be less than either of the chords a , b , and consequently cannot be the diameter of the circle.

The second positive root RN will supply us with the diameter required. The negative root QP supplies us with a diameter for another case; that is, when the two chords which terminate at the diameter are drawn from the same side, as in Fig. 118. For, doing the same things as above, draw likewise the chord AD . The angle DAB being right, the two angles DAC , MAB , will be equal to a right angle. But also, the two angles MAB , MBA , are equal to a right angle; therefore $MBA = DAC = CBD$, as inscribing on the same arch DC . Hence the two triangles CBD , MBA , are similar, and therefore $MA =$

Fig. 118.



$\frac{ac}{x}$; but, by *Euclid*, ii. 12, it will be $CBq = CAq +$

$BAq + 2CA \times AM$; whence the equation $xx - cc =$

$bb + aa + \frac{2abc}{x}$, that is, $x^3 - ccx - bbx - aax - 2abc$

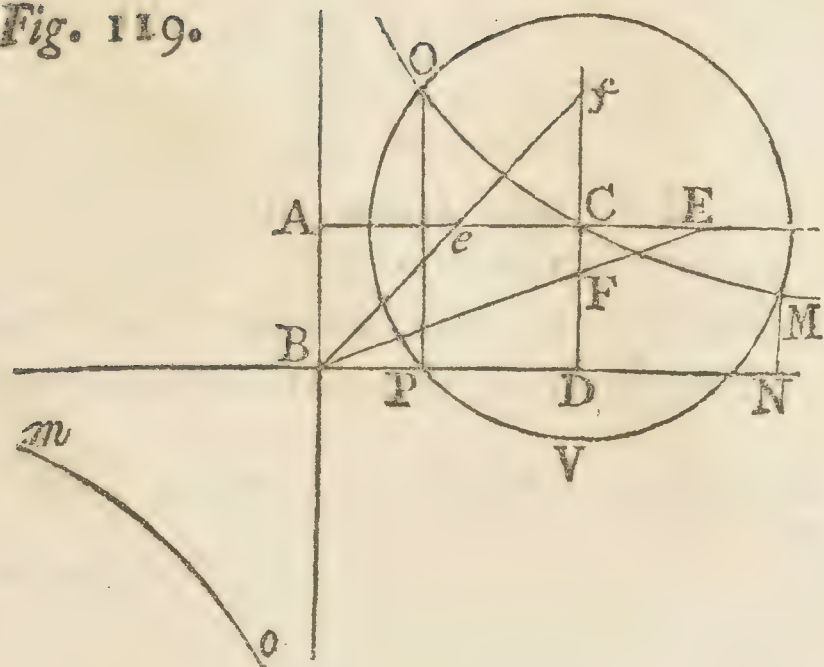
$= 0$; the construction of which is the same as the pre-

ceding, except that now, the last term being negative, we must draw DE (Fig. 117.) the negative way, because the axis of the parabola will be below the diameter of the circle; and the two positive roots in the first case are negative in this, and the negative becomes positive.

And because the second term is wanting in both the equations, it proceeds from thence, that the two positive roots in the first case are equal to the negative, and the positive in the second is equal to the two negative. Hence we learn that the first of the three roots, which gave us no solution of the Problem, yet however belonged to it, as being the difference of the two diameters.

PROBLEM III.

Fig. 119.



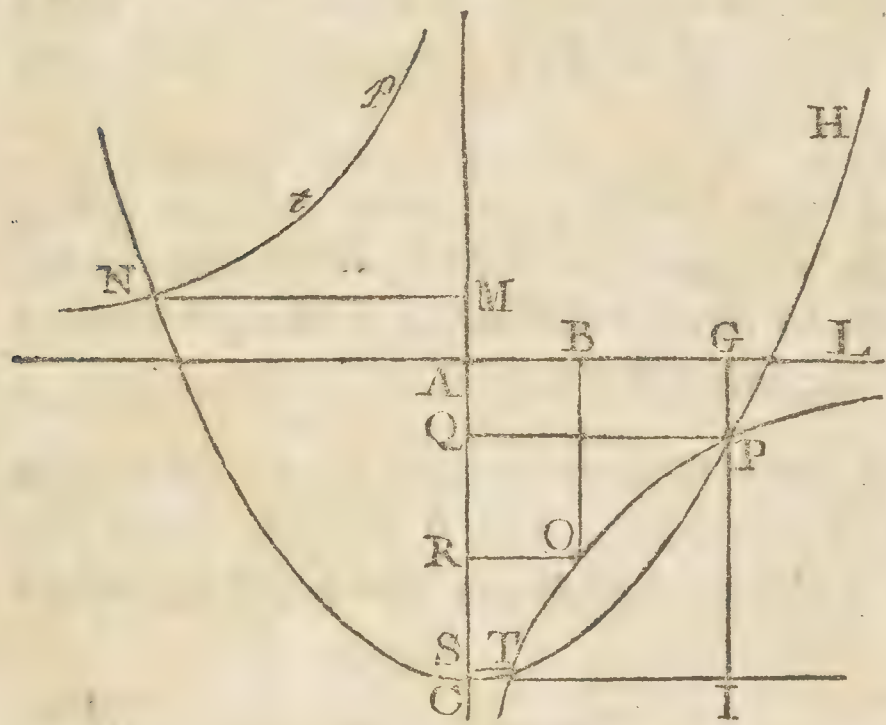
214. The rectangle $ACDB$ being given, Another geometrical Problem.
in the side AC produced to find the point E , so that, drawing the right line BE from the angle B , the intercepted line EF may be equal to a given right line c .

When a square is given instead of the rectangle $ABDC$, the Problem is plane, and has been already solved in Sect. IV. § 176. But, supposing $ABDC$ to be a rectangle,

ought to be equal to the angle CHI, by the conditions of the Problem, and $\text{CHI} = \text{CED}$ by the parallels FB, HI, and $\text{CED} = \text{FEH}$; then $\text{FHC} = \text{FEH}$, and therefore $\text{FE} = \text{FH}$. But $\text{FH} = \text{HI} = 2y$, therefore $\text{FE} = 2y$.

And the whole line $\text{FD} = 2y + \frac{ay}{\sqrt{rr - yy}}$. But $\text{FD} = f$; therefore $2y + \frac{ay}{\sqrt{rr - yy}} = f$; and taking away the asymmetry, it will be $y^4 - fy^3 + \frac{1}{4}ffyy + \frac{1}{4}aayy - rryy + frry - \frac{1}{4}ffrr = 0$; or, because $rr = ff + aa$, it is $y^4 - fy^3 - \frac{3}{4}rry^2 + frry - \frac{1}{4}ffrr = 0$, an equation of the fourth degree, which may be constructed after the manner already explained, making use of such conical *loci* as shall be most agreeable. But this equation is divisible by $y - f$, and the quotient is the equation $y^3 - \frac{3}{4}rry + \frac{1}{4}frr = 0$, which I shall construct by a parabola, and an hyperbola between the asymptotes. Make therefore $yy = rz$, and making the substitutions, it will be $zy - \frac{3}{4}ry + \frac{1}{4}fr = 0$, an equation to the hyperbola.

Fig. 121.



Make $\text{AR} = \frac{1}{2}r$, and $\text{AB} = \frac{1}{2}f$. Producing AR, AB, each way indefinitely, between them, as asymptotes, let the hyperbola $\text{TP}tp$ be described, which shall pass through the point O. Then taking $\text{RC} = \frac{1}{4}r$, and from the point C drawing the indefinite line CI parallel to AL, take any line whatever, $\text{CI} = y$, and it will be $\text{IP} = z$, and the hyperbola will be the *locus* of the equation $zy - \frac{3}{4}ry + \frac{1}{4}fr = 0$. With vertex C, diameter CM, and parameter $= r$, let the parabola NCH be described; it will cut the hyperbola in three points T, P, N, from whence drawing the lines TS, PQ, NM, parallel to AL, these shall be the three roots of the equation.

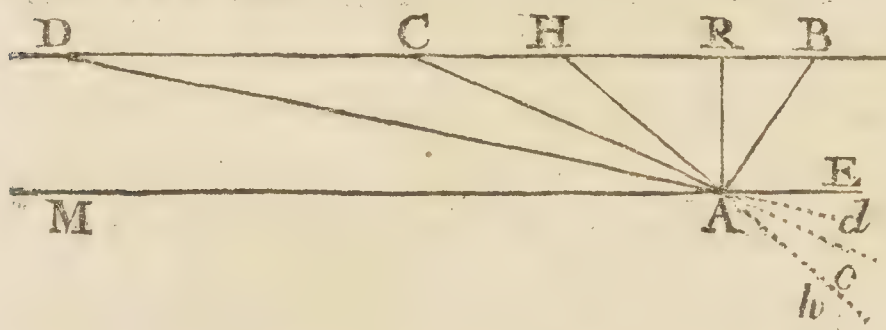
It is plain that the parabola will cut the hyperbola TP in the points T, P, because, it being $\text{CR} = \frac{1}{4}r$, putting this value instead of z in the equation to the parabola, $yy = rz$, it will give us $y = \frac{1}{2}r$. But $\frac{1}{2}r$ is always greater than $\frac{1}{2}f$, and therefore the ordinate in the parabola, which corresponds to the point R, will always be greater than RO; and therefore the parabola will pass within the hyperbola.

Now, because the circle is given in the Problem, it will be much more convenient to make use of this for the construction, by introducing it, first, to be added to the final equation, and that by putting the line HL (Fig. 120.) or $\sqrt{rr - yy} = z$. Then it will be $\text{DE} = \frac{ay}{z}$, and $\text{DF} = 2y + \frac{ay}{z}$, and therefore

D d

On the right line AD take $AI = \frac{3aa}{8b}$, and through the point I drawing LO parallel to AK, let there be taken a portion of it, $IL = \frac{9a^3}{64bb}$, and with vertex L, axis LO, and parameter $= a$, let there be described the *Apollonian* parabola ALH. From the point A taking the absciss y on the axis AK, the corresponding ordinates will be $KH = x$, and the parabola will be the *locus* of the equation $xx - \frac{3aax}{4b} = ay$; this will meet the circle in four points, A, M, H, N. The point A will give the introduced root $= 0$. The three perpendiculars, QM, PN, KH, to AK, will give the three roots of the equation. The first positive root, QM, will serve for the obtuse angle. The second, PN, which is negative, will serve for the acute angle. The third, KH, will serve for the division, into three equal parts, of that angle which is the difference between the given angle and a right angle.

Fig. 123.

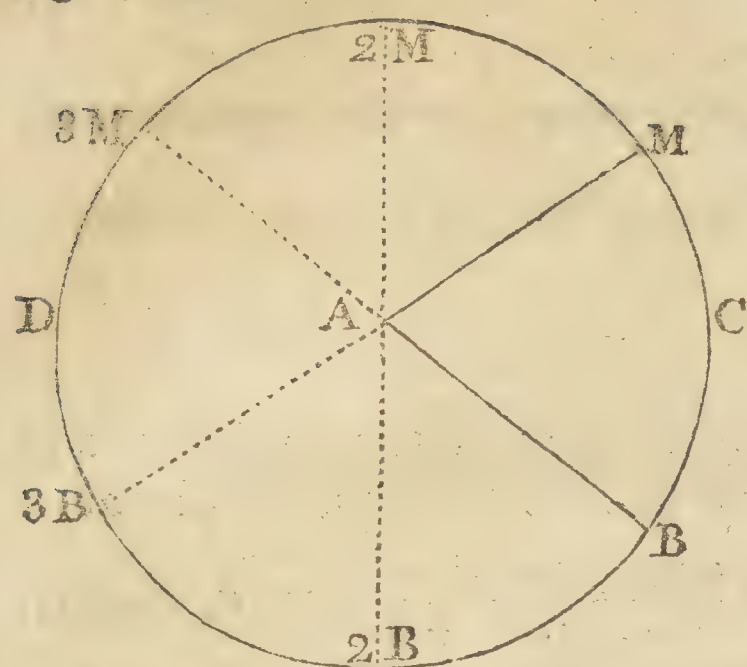


Now, to show that this is true, let the given angle be MAB. Let AH be perpendicular to AB; and let us divide the angle MAH into three equal parts, which is the difference between the given angle MAB, and the right angle HAB. Suppose it so divided by the right lines AC, AD, and repeating the

reasoning of § 110, it will be $AC = CD$, and the triangle ACH will be similar to the triangle DAH, and therefore we shall have the analogy, $CH : HA :: HA : DH$. Naming the quantities, therefore, as in § 110, $AB = a$, $BR = b$, and $BC = x$, it will be $RC = x - b$, $BH = \frac{aa}{b}$, $CH = x - \frac{aa}{b}$, $AR = \sqrt{aa - bb}$, $HA = \frac{a}{b} \sqrt{aa - bb}$, $AC = \sqrt{aa + xx - 2bx}$, $DH = x - \frac{aa}{b} + \sqrt{aa + xx - 2bx}$. Therefore, substituting these analytical values in the foregoing proportion, it will be $x - \frac{aa}{b} \cdot \frac{a}{b} \sqrt{aa - bb} :: \frac{a}{b} \sqrt{aa - bb} \cdot x - \frac{aa}{b} + \sqrt{aa + xx - 2bx}$. Whence the equation $\frac{aa}{bb} \times aa - bb = x - \frac{aa}{b} \times x - \frac{aa}{b} + \sqrt{aa + xx - 2bx}$; which, being reduced, and finally divided by $aa - bb$, will be found to be $2bx^3 - 3aaxx + a^4 = 0$, the very equation which was to be constructed.

Besides the angles less than two right ones, which insist on arches less than a semicircle, and which the architects call *Entrant Angles*, there are also angles which are greater than two right ones, and which insist on arches greater than a semicircle, and are called *Salient Angles*. The inclination of the two lines AB,

Fig. 124.



AB, AM, which point towards C, may be considered as positive, and that negative which points towards D. As long as the inclination of the two lines AB, AM, shall be positive, and shall point towards C, so long the angle MAB shall be entrant, or less than two right angles, and shall insit upon an arch, BCM, less than a semicircle. If the two lines A₂B, A₂M, shall make a right line 2B₂M, the inclination will be none at all. But if the inclination shall become negative, the two lines A₃B, A₃M, winding towards D, then the angle 3MA₃B will be changed into a salient angle, greater than two right ones, and

will insit upon an arch, 3MC₃B, greater than a semicircle. Therefore the trisection of any given angle may also include that of a salient angle.

Now it is to be considered, that, as the line AB (Fig. 123.) insits upon the line MAE, whilst it forms the angle MAB, three other angles will consequently arise, that is, the entrant BAE, which, united to the given and also entrant angle MAB, makes up the two right angles; and the salient angles MAB, BAE, which, united to the corresponding entrant angles, complete the four right angles.

Wherefore the three roots of our equation, $2bx^3 - 3aax^2 + a^4 = 0$, serve for the trisection of all the fore-mentioned angles. By means of the least positive root, the obtuse angle MAB is divided into three equal parts; and, by means of the negative, the acute angle BAE, as has been seen. Besides, it has been shown, that the greater positive root serves for the angle MAH; and this serves also to trisect both the salient angles MAB, BAE. For, indeed, the salient angle BAE is equal to three right angles, together with the angle MAH. The third part, therefore, of the salient angle BAE must be equal to one right angle, together with the third part of the angle MAH; and such is the angle CAB. In like manner, the salient angle MAB is equivalent to three right angles, taking away the angle MAH, or bAE; and consequently cAB will be it's third part, as being equal to the right angle bAB, taking away the angle bAc, a third part of the angle bAE.

217. Now, to divide the given angle into three equal parts, if I had made The same use of Prob. XIII. § 108, I should have come to the equation $x^3 - 3bx^2$ constructed $- 3rrx + brr = 0$; and, multiplying by $x = 0$, it is $x^4 - 3bx^3 - 3rrx^2$ another way, $+ brrx = 0$. Wherefore, assuming the locus to the parabola $xx - \frac{3}{2}bx = by$, and doing the rest as usual, we shall have another locus to the circle, taking the co-ordinates at right angles. This will be $yy - \frac{26b^3y + 24brry}{8bb} - \frac{39b^3x + 28brrx}{8bb} + xx = 0$.

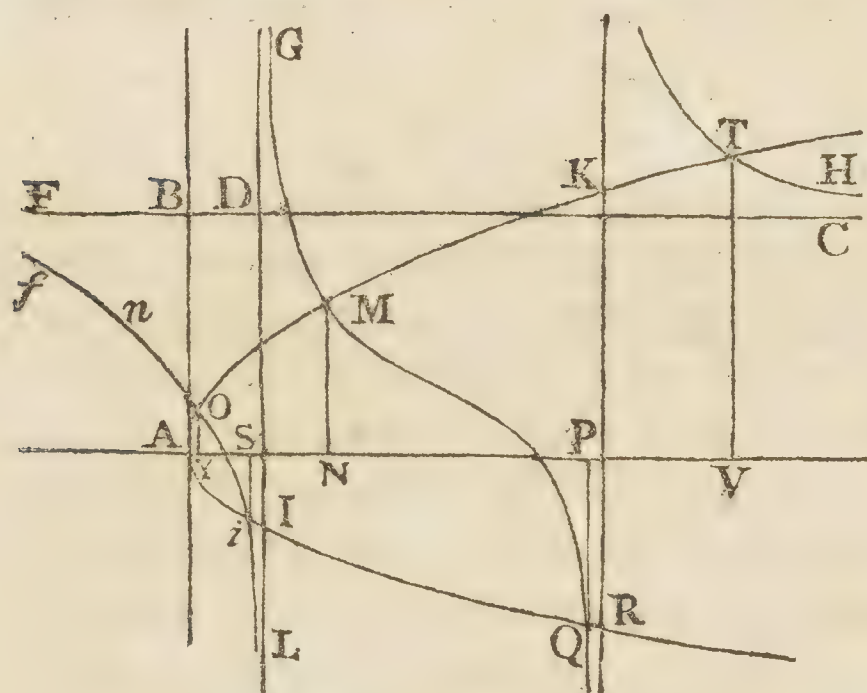
These

These two *loci* being described and combined, will give the same construction as in Fig. 125, differing only in the known quantities. For, in this case, the radius of the circle will be $CG = \sqrt{mm + nn}$; (making, for brevity-sake, $\frac{26b^3 + 24brr}{8bb} = 2m$, and $\frac{39b^3 + 28brr}{8bb} = 2n$), and it will be $CD = m$, $DA = n$, $AI = \frac{3}{4}b$, and $IL = \frac{9}{16}b$.

This Problem raised higher. 218. From the same Problem we have a general method for dividing any given arch or angle into as many equal parts as we please. Thus, to divide it into five equal parts, we shall have this equation, $\frac{5r^4x - 10rrx^3 + x^5}{r^4 - 10rrxx + 5x^4} = b$, that is, $x^5 - 5bx^4 - 10rrx^3 + 10br^2x^2 + 5r^4x - br^4 = 0$.

To construct this, I take a *locus* to the Apollonian parabola $xx = ry$, and, making the substitutions, there arises a second of the third degree, $xyy - 5byy - 10rxy + 10bry + 5rrx - brr = 0$, that is, $x = \frac{5byy - 10bry + brr}{yy - 10ry + 5rr}$.

Fig. 126.



Therefore, having described the *locus* of the equation, which shall be the curve with three branches, Fig. 126, that is, HT between the asymptotes RK, BC; GMQ between the asymptotes DI, KR; and *fni*L between the asymptotes DF, DI; in which, on the axis AV, are the *y*'s, and the corresponding ordinates are the *x*'s. With vertex A, parameter = *r*, and axis AV, if the parabola of the equation $xx = ry$ be described, it will meet the curve in five points, O, M, T, *i*, Q; which will determine the five roots, or, *mn*, TV, Si, and PQ; three positive, and two negative, of the equation proposed.

—raised still higher.

219. So, to divide an arch or angle given into any greater odd number of equal parts, other curves may be found, relative to the degree of the equation.

S E C T. V.

Of the Construction of Loci which exceed the Second Degree.

220. The Geometrical *Loci* may be constructed after two different manners ; Higher *loci* that is to say, by describing curves expressing equations which exceed the second ^{constructed} degree ; if we may call that describing, in each manner, which is rather tracing ^{two ways} them out, so as to give some notion of such curves.

The first manner of tracing them is, by finding an infinite number of points. The second is, by means of other curves of an inferior degree, which are already described. Thus, a *locus* or equation of the third degree may be constructed by means of a right line and a conic section ; a *locus* or equation of the fourth, by means of two conic sections ; a *locus* or equation of the fifth, by means of a conic section and a *locus* of the third degree. And so on, as far as you please.

221. Now, as to the first manner, by an infinite number of points ; first, —first, by the equation must be reduced in such manner, that one of the two unknown ^{finding an} quantities, which shall seem fittest for the purpose, must be freed from fractions ^{indefinite} or co-efficients, must be of one dimension only, and placed alone on one side ^{number of} of the sign of equality ; which may always be done by the methods explained in Sect. II. Then, in respect of such unknown quantity, (the other being considered as constant,) the equation must be of it's own nature plane, that is, must not exceed the second degree. As, for example, the equation $xyy + 2aay = x^3$, that is, $yy + \frac{2aay}{x} = xx$, which, managed by the rules for affected quadratics, will give $y = \frac{-aa \pm \sqrt{x^4 + a^4}}{x}$.

Equations being given or reduced in this manner, the way of constructing the *locus*, or curve expressed by it, consists in giving an arbitrary value to that unknown quantity which is included in the *homogeneum comparationis* ; taking it from a fixed point on a right line, which serves as an axis or diameter, according as the angle of the co-ordinates is to be a right or an oblique angle. As in the equation $y = \frac{-aa \pm \sqrt{x^4 + a^4}}{x}$, if we should give to x a value at pleasure, by

that means we should have a congruous value of y also. Then, from the extremity of the assumed value of x having drawn the value of y , in the given angle of the co-ordinates, this would supply us with a point in the curve to be described. Another value that we may give to the same unknown quantity x will supply us with another y , and that with another point in the curve; and thus, one after another, by assigning different values to x , we shall have so many y 's, or so many points of the curve. Now, the greater the number be of these points, so much the more exact will be the description of the curve, and then only we can have it perfectly exact, when we take an infinite number of such points, at due distances.

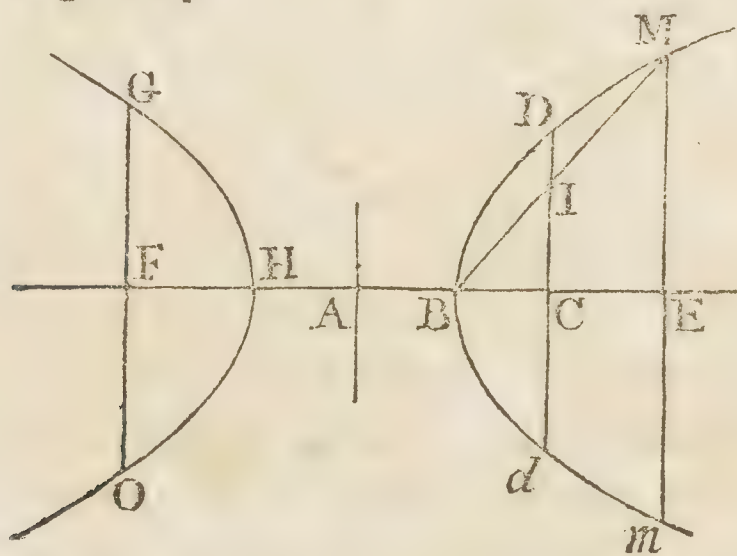
The ordinates to be at right angles to the absciss.

222. For the sake of greater simplicity, I shall at present suppose, that these curves are referred to their axis, or that the angle of the co-ordinates is a right angle; for, in case the angle be oblique, no alteration will thence follow.

An Example of describing the curve by points.

223. For the more easy understanding the application of this method, I shall take a simple example of a curve already known, that is, of the equilateral hyperbola $yy = xx - aa$, or $y = \pm \sqrt{xx - aa}$.

Fig. 127.



Let A be a fixed point, or the beginning of the x 's, to be taken on the indefinite line AE. First, then, I examine what ordinate corresponds to the point A, that is, what will y be when $x = 0$. Therefore, substituting 0 instead of x in the given equation, it will be found $y = \pm \sqrt{0 - aa}$, or y is imaginary and impossible. Therefore, to the point A there belongs no point of the curve. By making $x = 0$, if y had not come out imaginary, but only 0, the curve would have begun at the point A. It may be observed, that as often as

x is less than a , the radical $\sqrt{xx - aa}$ will always be negative, and therefore y an imaginary quantity. Therefore, making $AB = a$, to every x less than AB an imaginary y will always correspond, so that there will be no point in the curve. I take $x = a = AB$, then $y = \pm \sqrt{aa - aa} = 0$; and therefore B will be a point in the curve, or rather, the curve will have its origin in the point B. I take $x = 2a = AC$, and it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{4aa - aa} = \pm \sqrt{3a^2}$, positive and negative. Therefore make CD positive, and Cd negative, each equal to $\sqrt{3aa}$, and D and d will be two points in the curve. I take $x = 3a = AE$, and it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{8aa}$. Making therefore EM positive, and Em negative, $= \sqrt{8aa}$, and M, m, will be two points in the curve. And thus going on continually, by giving other values to x , we shall have the congruous values of y . And it is easy to perceive, that, as the x 's increase, so the quantities

quantities $\sqrt{xx - aa}$ will perpetually increase, that is, the values of y , both affirmative and negative. Thus, the curve will always proceed, enlarging and lengthening itself both above and below the axis; and, lastly, taking x infinite, because, to subtract a finite quantity from one that is infinite, is the same thing as to subtract nothing; therefore $\sqrt{xx - aa}$ will become \sqrt{xx} , or x , and we shall have $y = \pm x$, and y positive and negative will be infinite, and therefore the curve will go on *ad infinitum*.

224. And because, in the equation $y = \pm \sqrt{xx - aa}$, the unknown quantity x is raised to an even power, that is, to the square; if we take x negative, the equation itself receives no alteration. Hence it is, that, if we assign negative values to x , or if we take it on the side of A towards F, the same curve would be described as before, but in a contrary position with its vertex H, it being $AH = AB$. And to no absciss x , positive or negative, taken between B and H, any real ordinate, positive or negative, will correspond; that is, there will be no point of the curve. In even powers, the sign of the axis is ambiguous.

225. Now it is plainly seen, that the given curve cuts the axis in no point out of the vertices B, H; for, as x increases, y always increases. Nevertheless, it very often happens, that, besides the vertex, they cut it in other points, in which case y must necessarily become nothing. Therefore, to have these points, in the given equation we must suppose $y = 0$, and find the values of x on this supposition, which will give us the points required. Wherefore, in the equation $yy = xx - aa$, supposing $y = 0$, it will be $xx = aa$, that is, $x = \pm a$. Therefore, in the points B, H, only, the curve will cut the axis, and not in any other. To find where the curve cuts the axis.

226. If, between the points B, C, other values of x be taken, we shall also have the corresponding values of y , that is, other points of the curve between B and D, as also, between B and d ; so that the more points we have, the more exact will be the description of the part BD, or B d ; but we can never have it perfect, unless the number of those points were infinite. And the same may be said of any other portion. The more points we take, the better.

227. Now it is plain, that if either of the two indefinite quantities be made infinite, and the other be neither infinite nor imaginary, but be either finite or equal to nothing, the first indeterminate will be an asymptote to the curve, which will correspond to some determinate point of the value of the second. Therefore, to inquire if a curve have asymptotes, and where they are, it will suffice to make y infinite, and to see what value for x will then result from the equation. Then, to make x infinite, and see what value for y will thence result. In the equation $y = \pm \sqrt{xx - aa}$, making y infinite, it will be $\sqrt{xx - aa} = \infty$, and therefore $xx - aa = \infty$, or $xx = \infty$, and therefore x is infinite; for the root of an infinite square must also be infinite. So that y cannot be infinite except

E e

except when x is infinite also; and therefore the axis of the y 's cannot be an asymptote. Making x infinite, $\sqrt{xx - aa}$ will be the same; for a finite quantity, added to or taken from an infinite quantity, can make no alteration; it will be now $y = \pm x$, or, if x be infinite, y will be so also, and its axis cannot be an asymptote.

—found by
changing the
equation.

228. But it is not so in the equation $ay + xy = bb$, which we otherwise know to belong to the hyperbola between its asymptotes. For, taking y infinite, the two terms $ay + xy$ will be infinite, and, in respect of them, the term bb will be nothing, and the equation will become $ay + xy = 0$, and, dividing by y , it is $x = -a$; so that, taking $x = -a$, the ordinate, which in this point is infinite, will be an asymptote to the curve. Then, taking x infinite, because the two rectangles ay, xy , having the same altitude y , are to each other as their bases a, x , the second must be infinitely greater than the first, or ay will be nothing in respect of xy . Therefore, expunging ay out of the equation, there will remain $xy = bb$, or $y = \frac{bb}{x}$. But x is infinite by supposition, therefore $y = \frac{bb}{\infty} = 0$. So that when $y = 0$, then x will be infinite, and therefore is an asymptote to the curve.

Cautions to
be observed
in finding
asymptotes.

229. But here it must be observed, that this way of arguing takes place only in the case of asymptotes parallel to the co-ordinates, and not otherwise. For the truth is, the hyperbola $yy = xx - aa$ has indeed its asymptotes, but which are not parallel to either of the co-ordinates; therefore, in this case, the present way of arguing cannot be applied, but there is need of a further artifice; which, as it depends on the Method of Infinitesimals, I shall reserve for another place.

To find if the
curve be con-
cave or convex
towards its
axis.

230. It remains to inquire, whether the said curve $y = \pm \sqrt{xx - aa}$ be concave or convex towards its axis; for which purpose, we must take from its origin any absciss AE of a determinate value, and, by means of the given equation, we must find the value of the corresponding ordinate EM . Then, taking another absciss AC of a determinate value less than the former, we must find the value of the corresponding ordinate CD ; and drawing the right line BM , which shall cut CD (produced, if occasion) in I ; and the lines AE, AC , being known, or BE, BC , and the ordinate EM , by the similar triangles BEM, BCI , we shall find the value of CI ; and if this be less than CD , the curve will be concave towards the axis AE , as is plain; but if it be greater, the curve will be convex. In the given Example, I take $x = AE = 3a$; then $y = \sqrt{8a^2}$. Again, I take $x = AC = 2a$; then $y = CD = \sqrt{3aa}$. Now, because $BE = 2a, BC = a$, it will be $CI = \frac{\sqrt{8aa}}{2} = \sqrt{2aa}$, that is, CI less than CD , and therefore the curve is concave towards the axis AE .

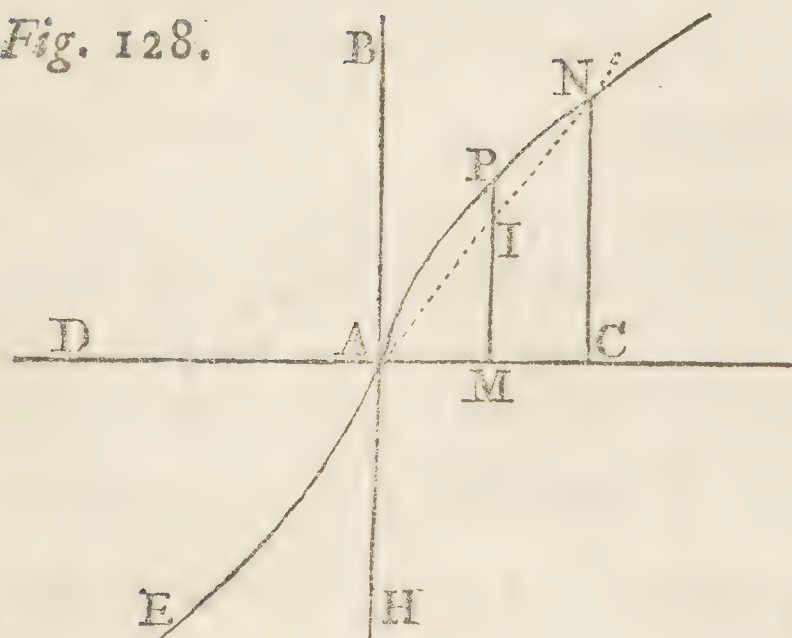
231. But

231. But these conclusions are valid only in such curves, which have no point of contrary flexure, or of regression. But, because these have their particular methods, of which, at present, this is not a place to treat, we cannot as yet form a just and complete idea of such curves.

Further to determine the forms of the curves, with examples.

EXAMPLE II.

Fig. 128.



Let the equation be $y^3 = aax$, or $y = \sqrt[3]{aax}$. Drawing the two indefinite lines BH, DC, making a given angle BAC equal to that of the co-ordinates; in AC, from the point A let the x 's be taken, and the y 's upon AB, or a line parallel to AB. First, I inquire if the curve passes through the point A or not, that is, what will y be when $x = 0$. But, making $x = 0$, we find $y = \sqrt[3]{aa \times 0}$, that is, $y = 0$. Therefore the curve passes through the point A. I inquire further, if the curve cuts the axis AC

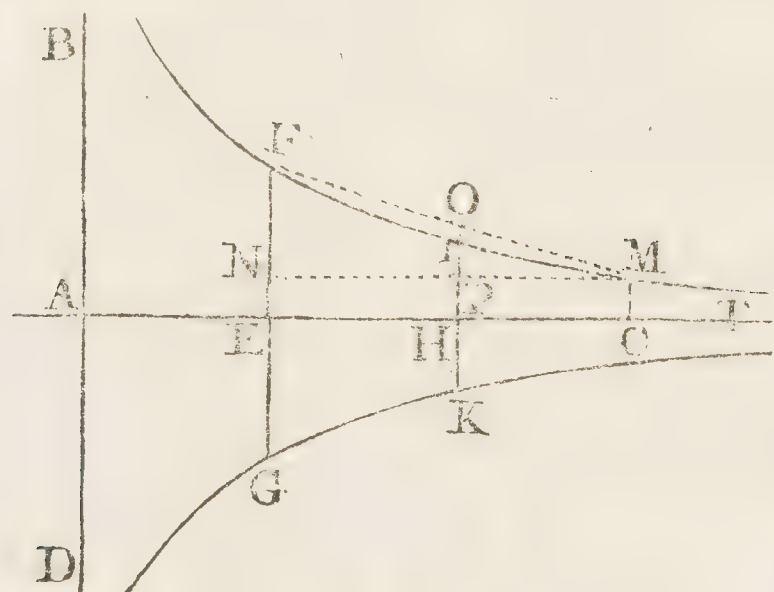
in another point, that is to say, what is x when $y = 0$, and I find $\sqrt[3]{aax} = 0$, that is, $x = 0$. Therefore the curve cuts the axis in no other point but A. Make $x = AM = \frac{1}{2}a$, and the given equation will be $y = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}a^3}$. Therefore, drawing $MP = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}a^3}$, and parallel to AB, then P will be a point in the curve. I make $x = AC = a$, and it will be $y = \sqrt[3]{a^3} = a$; then drawing $CN = a$, and parallel to AB, N will be another point in the curve. And doing this successively, we may find as many points as we please, through which the curve of this equation will pass. Lastly, make x infinite, or $x = \infty$, and it will be $y = \sqrt[3]{aa \times \infty}$, that is, y is infinite, and therefore our curve passes on to infinity. And because, taking $x = 0$, it is also $y = 0$, and taking $x = \infty$, it is also $y = \infty$, the curve will have no asymptotes that are parallel to the co-ordinates.

Let the line AN be drawn beneath, which cuts in I the line MP, produced if necessary. Now, since $AM = \frac{1}{2}a$, $AC = a = CN$, it will be $MI = \frac{1}{2}a$. But $MP = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}a^3}$, therefore MI will be less than MP, and therefore the curve is concave to the axis AC.

Now, if we take the absciss negative, because in the given equation $y^3 = aax$, the exponent of x is odd, when x is taken negative its sign should be changed, and the equation will then be $y = \sqrt[3]{-aax}$; here it is evident, that, taking the values of x the negative way, that is, from A towards D, but equal to those already taken the positive way, it will give as many negative values of y , equal to the positive. Whence the branch AE will be just the same as the branch AN, but contrarily posited.

EXAMPLE III.

Fig. 129.



Let the equation be $a^3 - zyy = 0$, that is, $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{z}}$, and let us take the z 's from the point A on the axis AC. First, I inquire if the curve passes through the point A; making therefore $z = 0$, the equation will be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{0}}$, that is, $y = \pm \infty$. Therefore BD, being infinite on both sides of A, will be an asymptote to the curve. Next, I inquire if in no point the curve cuts the axis; and therefore put $y = 0$,

and the equation will be $\pm \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{z}} = 0$, or $\frac{a^3}{z} = 0$, or $z = \frac{a^3}{0}$, that is, $z = \infty$. Therefore AC will be another asymptote. Taking $z = a = AE$, it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{a}} = \pm a$. Making therefore EF positive and EG negative, and each $= a$, the points F, G, will be in the curve. Taking $z = 2a = AH$, it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{2a}} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa}$. Therefore, making HI positive, and HK negative, each equal to $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa}$, the points I, K, will be in the curve. Taking new values of z always greater and greater continually, there will result new values of y always less and less, so that the two branches, FI, GK, of the curve being in every thing equal and similar, will stretch out on each side, approaching to the asymptotes BD, AC, yet without ever touching them, but at an infinite distance from the point A.

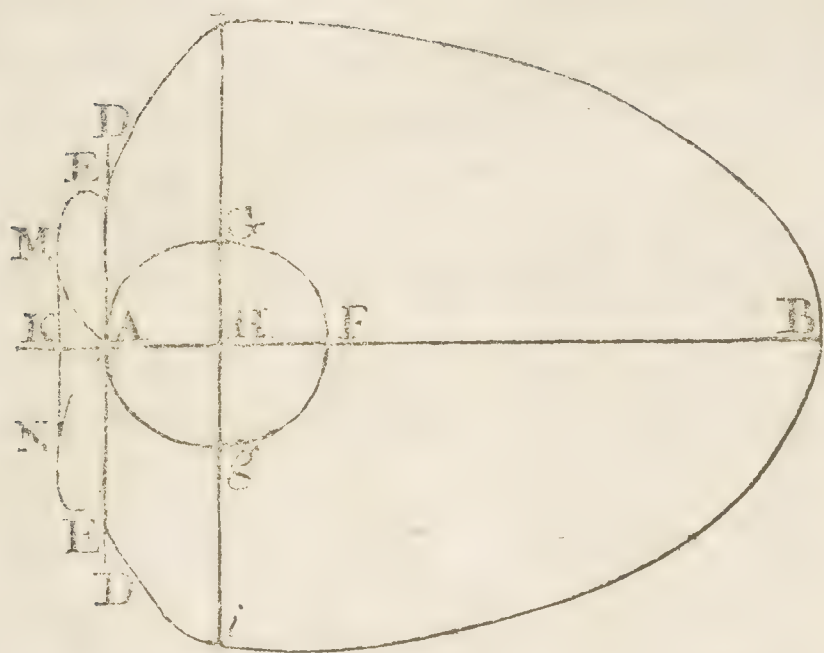
As to the negative absciss z ; because the exponent of z is an odd number, if it be taken negative it will be convenient to change the sign of the term $-zyy$, and then the equation will be $a^3 + zyy = 0$; that is, $y = \pm \sqrt{-\frac{a^3}{z}}$. That is to say, the ordinate y is imaginary, and therefore on the negative part of the absciss there will be no curve.

To examine whether the curve be concave or convex towards its axis AC, I take $AC = 3a$; then it will be $CM = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$; and drawing FM, which cuts HI (produced, if occasion) in O, and MN parallel to AC, it will be $NF = a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$, $PI = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$. Then making the analogy, $MN \cdot NF :: MP \cdot PO$, that is, $2a \cdot a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} :: a \cdot PO$; it will be $PO = \frac{a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}}{2}$; and

and therefore, if PO be greater than PI, the curve will be convex towards the axis AC. This is to be examined thus. If it be $\frac{a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}}{2} > \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$, then multiplying by 2, it will be $a - \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} > 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa} - 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa}$, and $a + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} > 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa}$, and squaring, $aa + 2a\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} + \frac{1}{3}aa > 2aa$, and multiplying by 3, $3aa + 6a\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} + aa > 6aa$, and reducing the terms, $6a\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} > 2aa$, and dividing by $2a$, $3\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}aa} > a$, and, lastly, squaring, $\frac{9}{3}aa > aa$, or $3 > 1$. Now, as this is a true result, so it is also true PO is greater than PI, and consequently the curve is convex towards the axis AT.

EXAMPLE IV.

Fig. 130.



Let the equation of the curve be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{4ax + a^2 - 2x^2 \pm a\sqrt{a^2 + 8ax}}{2}}$. On the indefinite right line AB, taking the x 's from the fixed point A, and the y 's on AD, which makes the angle DAB of the co-ordinates; if it be put $x = 0$, it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{aa \pm a\sqrt{aa}}{2}}$, that is, $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{2aa}{2}}$, and $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{0}{2}}$; or $y = \pm a$, and $y = 0$. Therefore, making AE positive and negative $= a$, the points E, A, E, will be in the curve. To

find where the curve cuts the axis AB, I put $y = 0$, and therefore

$$\pm \sqrt{\frac{4ax + a^2 - 2x^2 \pm a\sqrt{a^2 + 8ax}}{2}} = 0. \text{ Then, squaring and transposing,}$$

$4ax + aa - 2xx = \pm a\sqrt{aa + 8ax}$, and squaring again, $16aaxx + 8a^3x + a^4 + 4x^4 - 16ax^3 - 4aaxx = a^4 + 8a^3x$; then, reducing and dividing by $4xx$, it is $3aa - 4ax + xx = 0$, and resolving the equation, $x = \pm a + 2a$, that is, $x = a$, and $x = 3a$. Therefore, taking $x = AF = a$, and $x = AB = 3a$, the curve will cut the axis in the points F, B. Make $x = \frac{1}{2}a = AH$,

it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{5aa \pm 2a\sqrt{5aa}}{4}}$; therefore the four values of y are real, be-

cause $2a\sqrt{5aa}$ is less than $5aa$; which roots are, $\sqrt{\frac{5aa + 2a\sqrt{5aa}}{4}}$, $\sqrt{\frac{5aa - 2a\sqrt{5aa}}{4}}$, $-\sqrt{\frac{5aa - 2a\sqrt{5aa}}{4}}$, and $-\sqrt{\frac{5aa + 2a\sqrt{5aa}}{4}}$. The two positive roots are relatively

relatively equal to the two negative; therefore, taking $HI = Hi = \sqrt{\frac{5aa + 2a\sqrt{5aa}}{4}}$, and $HG = Hg = \sqrt{\frac{5aa - 2a\sqrt{5aa}}{4}}$, the four points, I, G, g, i, will be in the curve.

Examples to determine when the ordinates are real.

232. As often as the quantity under the common radical vinculum is a negative quantity, (for that under the second vinculum, or $\sqrt{aa + 8ax}$, cannot be negative, the absciss being positive, as I now suppose it,) the ordinate y will be imaginary. Now, therefore, that there may be an ordinate, it will be necessary that it be $\sqrt{\frac{4ax + aa - 2xx \pm a\sqrt{aa + 8ax}}{2}} > 0$.

In the first place, I take the sign positive of the second radical, in which case the whole quantity will be certainly positive, if it be $4ax + aa - 2xx > 0$, that is, $2xx - 4ax < aa$, and therefore $xx - 2ax < \frac{1}{2}aa$, and $xx - 2ax + aa < \frac{3}{2}aa$, and extracting the root, $x - a < \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}aa}$, or $a - x < \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}aa}$. From the first root, in which x is supposed to be greater than a , I infer that it must be $x < a + \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}aa}$. From the second, in which it is supposed that $x < a$, I conclude that it must be $x > a - \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}aa}$. But, as $a - \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}aa}$ is always a negative quantity, it will be always $x > a - \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}aa}$, when x is taken less than a . Therefore, taking x less than a , the quantity $4ax + aa - 2xx$ will be positive, so that much more the quantity $4ax + a^2 - 2x^2 + a\sqrt{a^2 + 8ax}$ will be positive. And therefore, in general, taking x less than AF, or a , it will be

$y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{4ax + a^2 - 2x^2 + a\sqrt{a^2 + 8ax}}{2}}$, a real ordinate. But, even though

$4ax + aa - 2xx$ were a negative quantity, yet $\sqrt{\frac{4ax + aa - 2xx + a\sqrt{aa + 8ax}}{2}}$

may be a positive quantity; that is, whenever it is $\sqrt{\frac{4ax + aa - 2xx + a\sqrt{aa + 8ax}}{2}} > 0$,

it will be, by squaring and transposing, $a\sqrt{aa + 8ax} > 2xx - aa - 4ax$, and by squaring again, $a^4 + 8a^3x > 4x^4 - 16ax^3 + 16a^2x^2 - 4a^2x^2 + 8a^3x + a^4$, that is, $4x^4 - 16ax^3 + 12a^2xx < 0$, and dividing by $4xx$, it is $xx - 4ax + 3aa < 0$, and therefore $xx - 4ax + 4aa < aa$, and extracting the root, $x - 2a < a$, as also $2a - x < a$. From the first root, which supposes x to be greater than $2a$, arises $x < 3a$. Therefore, taking x greater than $2a$, but less than AB, or $3a$, the radical will be positive, and therefore the ordinate y will be real. From the second root, which supposes x less than $2a$, I obtain $x > a$; and therefore, whenever x is greater than a , and less than $2a$, the radical will be positive, and therefore y real. But we have seen by the first, that, taking x less than a , the ordinate y is real; therefore, in general, the ordinate y will be real, if we take x less than AB, or $3a$.

Taking

Taking the sign negative of the second radical, it would be

$$\sqrt{\frac{4ax + aa - 2xx - a\sqrt{aa + 8ax}}{2}} > 0, \text{ and squaring, } 4ax + aa - 2xx >$$

$a\sqrt{aa + 8ax}$, and squaring again and reducing, and dividing by $4xx$, it will be $xx - 4ax > -3aa$, and thence also $xx - 4ax + 4aa > aa$, and extracting the root, $x - 2a > a$, as also, $2a - x > a$. From the first root we obtain $x > 3a$. But we have seen, that $x > 3a$ gives the value of y imaginary, when the second radical has a positive sign, and therefore much more when it has a negative sign. Wherefore, omitting this root, I make use of the other, $2a - x > a$, which gives me $x < a$. Therefore, taking x less than AF , or a , the quantity under the common radical vinculum will be positive, as well if we take the sign of the second radical positive as negative, and therefore between A and F there will correspond four real ordinates, that is, two positive and two negative, which are relatively equal to the positive. But when x is greater than AF , or a , the negative sign of the second radical gives an imaginary ordinate, and the positive sign gives it real; because it is x less than AB , or $3a$, and therefore between F and B will correspond to the same absciss only two real ordinates, one positive, the other negative and equal to the positive; and beyond the point B they will be only imaginary.

Now let the absciss be taken negative, that is, from A towards K . In this case, changing in the equation the signs of all the terms in which the exponent

of x is odd, then $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{aa - 2xx - 4ax \pm a\sqrt{aa - 8ax}}{2}}$. I put $x = 0$, and

it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{aa \pm a\sqrt{aa}}{2}}$, that is, $y = \pm a$, and $y = 0$. Therefore the points E, A, E , will be in the curve, as in the first case. To see if the curve

cuts the axis, put $y = 0$; then $\sqrt{\frac{aa - 2xx - 4ax \pm a\sqrt{aa - 8ax}}{2}} = 0$, and

squaring, and transposing, $aa - 2xx - 4ax = a\sqrt{aa - 8ax}$, and squaring again, and reducing, and dividing by $4xx$, it will be $xx + 4ax + 3aa = 0$; and resolving, $x = -2a \pm a$.

Therefore the curve will cut the axis when it is $x = 0$, a division being just now made by $4xx$; when it is $x = -3a$, and when it is $x = -a$; that is, by being a negative quantity, on the side opposite to this, towards which we now take x ; and therefore only in A, F, B , as has been already seen. Now I put $x = \infty$, to see if the curve goes on to infinity, or to the asymptote AK , and it is $y = \pm \sqrt{-2 \times \infty^2 \pm \sqrt{-8a \times \infty}}$, that is, y is imaginary. I inquire then what are the limits of the real ordinates. It is certain that then x is greater than $\frac{1}{2}a$; the second radical will be a negative quantity, and therefore the ordinate y imaginary; so that x must not be taken greater than $\frac{1}{2}a$; but in this hypothesis, because the whole quantity under the common radical is positive, taking the positive sign of the second radical, it will be enough that $aa - 2xx$

— $4ax$ be positive, that is, $aa - 2xx - 4ax > 0$, and therefore $xx + 2ax < \frac{1}{2}aa$, or $x < \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa} - a$. But when x is not greater than $\frac{1}{8}a$, and also $< \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa} - a$, making then x not greater than $\frac{1}{8}a$, the ordinate will be real. Taking the negative

sign of the second radical, it will be $\sqrt{\frac{aa - 2xx - 4ax - a\sqrt{aa - 8ax}}{2}} > 0$,

that is, squaring and transposing, $aa - 2xx - 4ax > a\sqrt{aa - 8ax}$, and squaring again and reducing, $x + 2a > a$. But $x + 2a$ is always greater than a , and therefore, supposing x to be taken not greater than $\frac{1}{8}a$, the ordinates will always

be real. I take $x = \frac{1}{8}a$, and it will be $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{15aa}}{8}$; and therefore, making KM

positive, and KN negative and equal to $\frac{\sqrt{15aa}}{8}$, the points M, N, will be in the

curve. I take $x = \frac{a}{16}$, it will be $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{95aa \pm 128a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa}}}{16}$, that is, the

four values are real, two positive, which are relatively equal to the two negative.

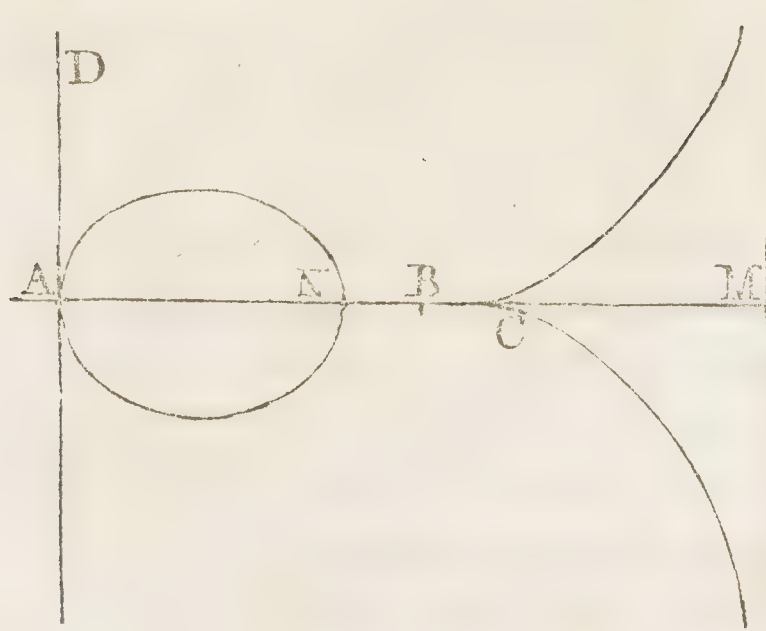
And, because the fourth proportional of $\frac{1}{8}a$, $\frac{\sqrt{15aa}}{8}$, and $\frac{1}{16}a$, or $\frac{\sqrt{15aa}}{16}$, is

less than $\frac{\sqrt{95aa + 128a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa}}}{16}$, but greater than $\frac{\sqrt{95aa - 128a\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}aa}}}{16}$, the curve

will have two branches above AK, one concave, and the other convex, and also two below, like and equal to those above, as in Fig. 130.

EXAMPLE V.

Fig. 131.



Let it be the curve of this equation $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{bbxx - x^3 + 2ax^2 - aax}{x - 2a}}$; here, for one

case, let a be greater than b , and let the x 's be taken from the point A, upon the indefinite line AM, and the y 's upon AD in a given angle, or parallel to a given line. Making $x = 0$, it will be $y = 0$, and therefore the point A is in the curve. Making

$y = 0$, it will be $\sqrt{\frac{bbx - x^3 + 2axx - aax}{x - 2a}} = 0$,

that is, $bbx - x^3 + 2axx - aax = 0$, and dividing by x , it is $bb - xx + 2ax - aa$

$= 0$, and therefore $xx - 2ax + aa = bb$, and extracting the root, $x - a = \pm b$; therefore the values of x will be $x = a + b$, $x = a - b$, and $x = 0$, because the equation was divided by x . Whence, making $AB = BM = a$,

BN

$BN = BC = b$, the curve will cut the axis in the point A, as has been already seen, and also in the points N, C. Making $x = AM = 2a$, y will be positive and negative infinite, and therefore there will be an asymptote at M. Put $x = \infty$, it will be $y = \pm \sqrt{-xx}$, that is, imaginary. Therefore the curve is not continued to infinity. Now, that the ordinate y may be real, it follows that the quantity under the vinculum must be positive; it is therefore necessary that, the numerator of the fraction being positive, the denominator must be so also; and the one being negative, the other must be the same. But, that the numerator may be positive, it must be $bbx - x^3 + 2axx - aax > 0$, or, dividing by x and transposing, $xx - 2ax < bb - aa$. Therefore $xx - 2ax + aa < bb$, and extracting the root, $x - a < b$, taking x greater than a ; and $a - x < b$, taking x less than a . From the first root, $x - a < b$, we have $x < a + b$. From the second, $a - x < b$, we have $x > a - b$. Therefore, taking x greater than a , it must be $x < a + b$; and taking x less than a , it must be $x > a - b$, so that the numerator may be positive. Now, that the denominator may be positive, it must be $x > 2a$; and, as it cannot be greater than $2a$, and at the same time less than $a + b$, and than a , the numerator and denominator cannot be both positive; and therefore between the points N and C there will be no real ordinates. If we take $x > a + b$, the numerator will be negative; as also, if we take $x < a - b$. And if we take $x < 2a$, the denominator will also be negative. Therefore, between A and N, and between C and M, there will be real ordinates, and the curve will be nearly as in Fig. 131.

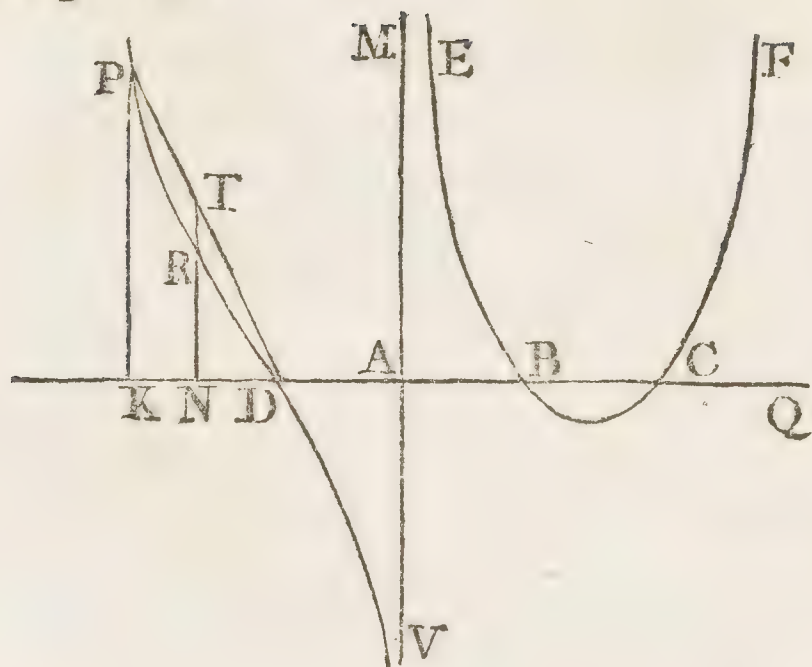
Take x negative; changing therefore the signs of those terms, in which the exponent of x is an odd number, the equation will be $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{x^3 - bbx + 2axx + aax}{-2a - x}}$,

that is, $y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{bbx - x^3 - 2axx - aax}{2a + x}}$. The denominator will always be posi-

tive; but, that the numerator may be positive, it will be necessary that $b^2x - x^3 - 2ax^2 - a^2x > 0$; and, dividing by x and transposing, $xx + 2ax + aa < bb$, that is, $x + a < b$, and therefore $x < b - a$. But, if we suppose $b < a$, then $b - a$ will be a negative quantity, and therefore it can never be $x < b - a$, that is, the numerator can never be positive. So that the ordinates y will always be imaginary, and there can be no part of the curve on the side of the negative abscisses.

EXAMPLE VI.

Fig. 132.



Let the equation be $y^3 - 2ay^2 - aay + 2a^3 = axy$, that is, $x = \frac{y^3 - 2ay^2 - aay + 2a^3}{ay}$.

From the fixed point A, upon the indefinite line AQ, I take the y 's, and on the indefinite line AM, or it's parallel, in the given angle of the co-ordinates, I take the x 's. Putting $y = 0$, it will be $x = \frac{2aa}{0}$,

that is, $x = \infty$; so that the curve will approach to the asymptote AM. To see if the curve cuts the axis, and where, I put $x = 0$, and therefore $y^3 - 2ay^2 - aay + 2a^3 = 0$; and, resolving this cubic equation, we shall have three values of y ,

that is, $y = a$, $y = 2a$, and $y = -a$. Therefore, making $AB = AD = BC = a$, the curve will cut the axis in the points B, C, on the side of the positives, and in the point D on the negative side.

To determine the same when the equations are irreducible.

233. If the equation $y^3 - 2ay^2 - aay + 2a^3 = 0$ had been irreducible, so that we could not have had the analytical values of y , we must have constructed this equation, and by that means have found the values of y geometrically, that is, expressed by lines, which would have given us the points required. And this is to be understood of any other such case. Thus, I put $y = \frac{3}{2}a$, and it will be $x = -\frac{5}{12}a$, that is, the ordinate is negative, and therefore the curve passes below the axis AQ at B, and returns above at C. I put $y = \infty$, it will be $x = \frac{yy}{a} = \infty$, and therefore the curve goes on to infinity. It is

plain that the infinite branch BE will be convex towards the axis AM, the branch BC will be concave to the axis AQ, and CF convex, when the curve shall have no contrary flexures. Let us now take the abscisses y negative from

A towards D. Then the equation will be $x = \frac{-y^3 - 2ay^2 + aay + 2a^3}{-ay}$, or $x = \frac{y^3 + 2ay^2 - aay - 2a^3}{ay}$. I take $y = 0$, then it will be $x = -\frac{2aa}{0} = -\infty$;

therefore MA, produced infinitely on the side of the negatives, will be also an asymptote to the curve. I take $y = \frac{1}{2}a$, it will be $x = -\frac{15}{4}a$; I take $y = a$, then it will be $x = 0$, and the curve will pass through D. I take $y = \infty$, it will be $x = \frac{yy}{a} = \infty$, and the curve above AD will go on *ad infinitum*.

nitum. I take $y = 3a = AK$, then $x = \frac{4}{3}a = KP$. I take $y = 2a = AN$, then it will be $x = 6a = NR$. Now, because, drawing the right line DP , it will be $NT = \frac{4}{3}a$, and $\frac{4}{3}a > 6a$; therefore $NT > NR$, and the curve in R is convex to the axis AK , that is, concave to the axis AM . But, if it go on towards the asymptote AV , below AK , it must therefore necessarily be convex to it, and therefore will have a contrary flexure; but, to determine this does not belong to this place.

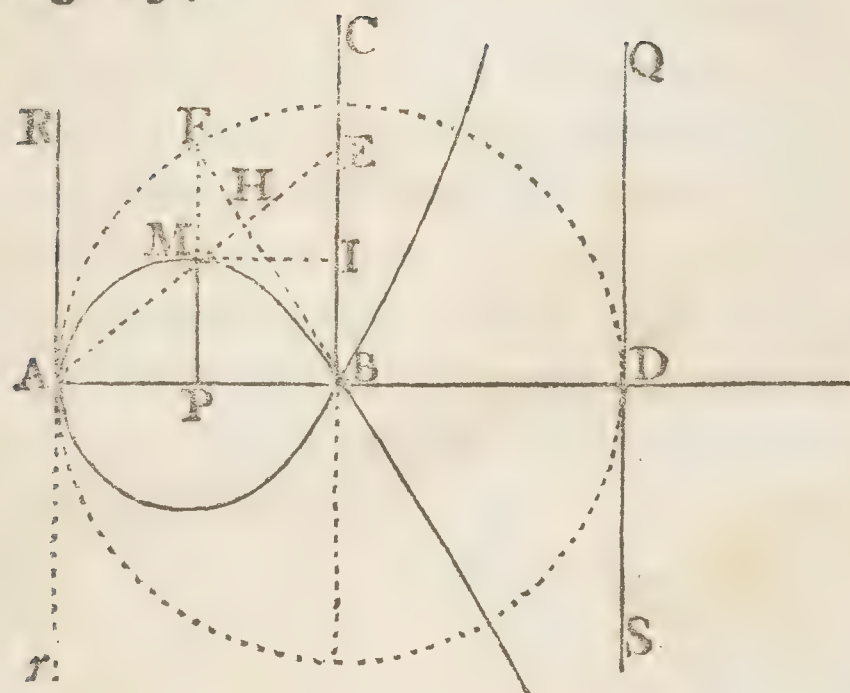
234. But, if the proposed equation of the curve to be constructed shall involve both the indeterminates raised to a power higher than the second, so that it cannot generally be reduced in such manner, as that it may have one of the two indeterminates alone, on one side of the equation, of one power only; then, indeed, the trouble of the operation may increase, but not the difficulty of the method. For, fixing a known value upon one of the indeterminates, for example x , we shall have a solid equation, given by y and constant quantities, which is to be resolved or constructed; from whence we shall have the values of y , which will determine so many points of the curve. Then, fixing upon another value for x , we shall have another solid equation to be resolved or constructed, which will furnish us with other points of the curve; and thus working from one to another successively, we may find as many points as we please of the curve to be described. It may be done by taking points.

235. But, on this and such other occasions, as it is required to resolve and construct solid equations, as in the sixth Example, it may seem as if we fell into what logicians call *Circulus Vitiosus*, because, in treating of Solid Problems, I have supposed the description of curves which are superior to conic sections. But, upon further reflection, the matter will be found to be much otherwise. For, if the curve to be described be of three or four dimensions, the solid equation to be constructed will be of the third or fourth order at most, and be performed by means of the conic sections. Therefore, without any *circulus vitiosus*, any curve of three or four dimensions may be described. If the equation of the curve to be described shall be of five dimensions, the solid equation to be constructed will be, at most, of five; and this is done by means of a curve of three, and one of two dimensions. And so, in like manner, of the higher orders; whence it plainly appears, that there can be no objection of our falling into such a fallacy. An objection obviated.

be wholly comprehended between the two tangents AQ , BR , produced *in infinitum*. And, because it approaches to the asymptote BR , having no contrary flexure, it will necessarily be wholly convex to the axis AB , and will appear as in Fig. 133.

PROBLEM II.

Fig. 134.



237. The angle ABC being a right angle, and the point A in the side AB being given, the *locus* is required of all the points M, such that, drawing through every one of them the right lines AE, terminated at the side BC in the point E, it may be always $EM = EB$.

Let any right line AE be drawn, and let M be one of the points required; from the point M let fall MP perpendicular to AB, and make $AP = x$, $PM = y$, and $AB = a$. It will be $PB = a - x$, and $AM = \sqrt{xx + yy}$. Now, because of

similar triangles APM, ABE, it will be $x \cdot y :: a \cdot BE$, and therefore $BE =$
 $EM = \frac{ay}{x}$. But it is also $AP \cdot PB :: AM \cdot ME$; that is, $x \cdot a - x ::$

$\sqrt{xx + yy} \cdot \frac{ay}{x}$. Therefore $ay = \frac{a}{a-x} \times \sqrt{xx + yy}$, and squaring, $aayy =$
 $aaxx - 2ax^3 + x^4 + aayy - 2axyx + xxyy$, or $\frac{aaxx - 2ax^3 + x^4}{2ax - xx} = yy$.

And, lastly, since the root of $axxx - 2ax^3 + x^4$ is as well $ax - xx$ as $xx - ax$, it will be $y = \frac{ax - xx}{\sqrt{2ax - xx}}$, and $y = \frac{xx - ax}{\sqrt{2ax - xx}}$: that is, $\pm y$

$$\frac{ax - xx}{\sqrt{2ax - xx}},$$
 the equation to the curve which is required.

The ordinates y will therefore be positive and negative, and equal to each other; and the positive and negative will correspond to the same absciss; and therefore the curve will be both above and below the axis AB , and will be altogether similar and equal.

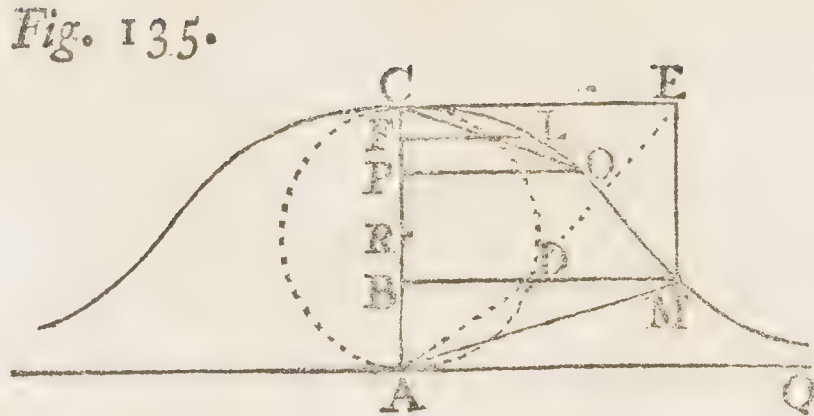
From the point A drawing AR perpendicular to AB, which shall be the axis to which the ordinates y are referred, as AB is the axis of the absciss x ; first, I make

make $x = 0$, to see if the curve passes through A; and, because I find also $y = 0$, the point A will be the vertex of the curve. Now make $y = 0$, it will be $ax - xx = 0$, and therefore $x = 0$, and $x = a$. Hence I find that the curve will pass through the point B also. Make $x = \frac{1}{3}a$, and it will be $\pm y = \frac{2a}{3\sqrt{5}}$. Make $x = \frac{1}{2}a$, and it will be $\pm y = \frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}$. Make $x = \frac{2}{3}a$, it will be $\pm y = \frac{4a}{3\sqrt{3}}$. Make $x = 2a$, and it will be $\pm y = \frac{2aa}{0} = \infty$; and therefore, taking $AD = 2a$, and drawing the indefinite right line SQ parallel to PM, it will be an asymptote to the curve. If x be greater than $2a$, the quantity under the radical vinculum will be negative, and therefore the ordinate y will be imaginary, so that there is no part of the curve beyond the point D. It is plain that, between the points A and B, the curve will be concave towards the axis AB. And because, beyond the point B, it applies itself to its asymptote SQ, it will be convex to the axis BD between B and D, provided it has no contrary flexure.

Taking x negative, the quantity under the vinculum will be always negative, and therefore the ordinate y is imaginary; so that, on the negative part of the absciss, there will be no curve; whence it will be nearly as in Fig. 134.

PROBLEM III.

Another example of the curve called the Witch.



238. The femicircle ADC, on the diameter AC, being given; out of it a point M is required, such that, drawing MB perpendicular to the diameter AC, which shall cut the circle in D, it may be $AB \cdot BD :: AC \cdot BM$. And, because there will be an infinite number of points that will satisfy the Problem, the *locus* of those points is required.

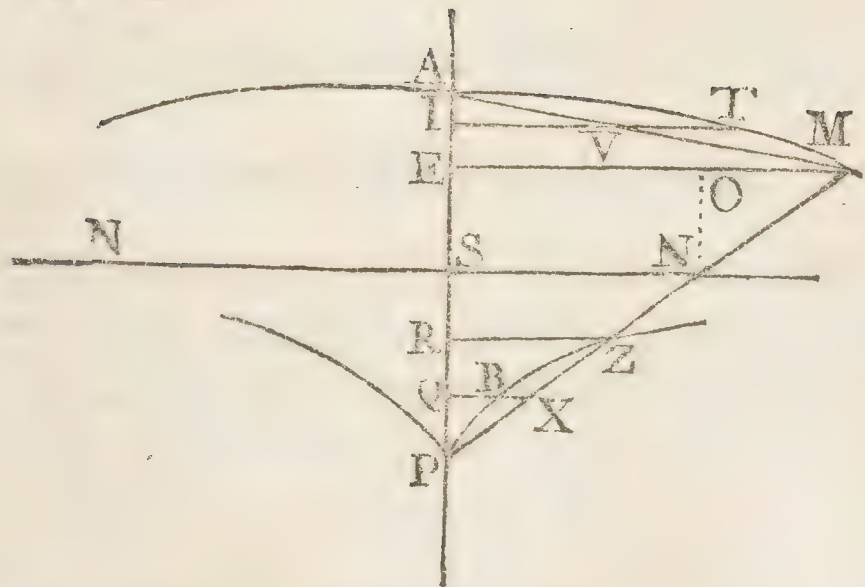
Let M be one such point, and making $AC = a$, $AB = x$, and $BM = y$, by the property of the circle, it will be $BD = \sqrt{ax - xx}$; and, by the condition of the Problem, it is $AB \cdot BD :: AC \cdot BM$; that is, $x \cdot \sqrt{ax - xx} ::$

$a \cdot y$, and therefore $y = \frac{a\sqrt{ax - xx}}{x}$, or $y = \frac{a\sqrt{a - x}}{\sqrt{x}}$, will be the equation of the curve to be described, which is vulgarly called the *Witch*.

Because $AB = x$, $BM = y$, the axis of the x 's will be AC ; and AQ , parallel to BM , will be the axis of the ordinates y . First, make $x = 0$, it will be $y = \infty$, and therefore AQ is the asymptote of the curve. Make $y = 0$, it will be $a\sqrt{a-x} = 0$, and therefore $x = a$. So that, when it is $x = a$, the curve will cut the axis AC , and consequently will pass through the point C , which will be it's vertex. Make $x = AR = \frac{1}{2}a$, it will be $y = a$. Make $x = AP = \frac{3}{4}a$, it will be $y = a\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$. Make $x = AF = \frac{4}{5}a$, it will be $y = a\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}} = \frac{1}{2}a$. Putting x greater than a , the quantity under the vinculum will be negative, and the curve imaginary. To see whether the curve be concave or convex towards the axis AC , make this proportion. As $CP = \frac{1}{4}a$ (which corresponds to $x = \frac{3}{4}a$), is to $y = a\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$, so is $CF = \frac{1}{5}a$, (which corresponds to $x = \frac{4}{5}a$), to a fourth, which will be $a \times \frac{4}{5}\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$. But $x = \frac{4}{5}a$ gives $y = a\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}$, and $a \times \frac{4}{5}\sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$ is less than $a\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}$. Therefore the curve will be concave towards the axis AC . But, because of the asymptote AQ , it ought also to be convex; therefore it will be partly concave and partly convex, and therefore it will have a contrary flexure, which will be found by the method to be given in it's proper place. And taking x negative, because the quantity under the vinculum will be negative in the denominator, y will be imaginary. Wherefore the curve will be as may be seen in Fig. 135, observing that this curve has a branch similar and equal to the branch CLM , on the other side of AC , corresponding to y negative.

PROBLEM IV.

Fig. 136.



239. The indefinite right line NN being given in position, and a point P out of the same, the point M is required, such that, drawing from it to the point P the right line MP, the line NM, intercepted between the indefinite line NN and the point M, may be equal to a given right line. And, because there are infinite points that satisfy this demand, the *locus* of these points is required.

From the point P draw the right line PA perpendicular to NN, and the right line PM to any point M, which is one of those required; and drawing the right line ME parallel to NN, make $PS = b$, $SE = x$, $EM = y$, and let $SA = a$ be the given line, to which the right line NM is to be equal by the condition of the Problem. From the point N draw the right line NO perpendicular to EM, and it will be $MO = \sqrt{aa - xx}$. And, because of the similar

similar triangles PEM, NOM, it will be $PE \cdot EM :: NO \cdot OM$, that is $b + x \cdot y :: x \cdot \sqrt{aa - xx}$; and therefore $\overline{b + x} \times \sqrt{aa - xx} = xy$, and squaring, $xyy = aaxx - x^4 + 2aabbx - 2bx^3 + aabb - bbxx$; and lastly, $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{aaxx - x^4 + 2aabbx - 2bx^3 + aabb - bbxx}}{x}$, the equation of the curve to be described, which is the *Conchoid of Nicomedes*.

Three different cases may be distinguished in this Problem. That is, it may be $b = a$; it may be b less than a ; and lastly, it may be b greater than a . First, let it be $b = a$, and the equation will be changed into this following:

$$y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{-x^4 + 2a^3x - 2ax^3 + a^4}}{x}.$$

Since it is $SE = x$, and $EM = y$, the axis will be NN, to which the y 's are referred, and PA that of the x 's, the origin of which is at S. First, I make $x = 0$, to see if the curve passes through the point S; and because there arises $y = \pm \frac{aa}{0}$, that is, y positive and negative is infinite, NN will be the asymptote of the curve. I make $y = 0$, to see where the curve cuts the axis PA, and it will be $-x^4 + 2a^3x - 2ax^3 + a^4 = 0$. Now, this equation being resolved by the rules before taught, its roots will determine the points in which the curve meets the aforesaid axis PA. Now the roots of this equation are four, that is, $x = a$ positive, and three negative roots equal to it, or $x = -a$. Therefore the curve will meet the axis in two points, distant from the point S by the quantity a . But, because, at present, we are concerned only with the positive x 's, it will be sufficient to consider the positive root; and therefore the curve will pass through the point A, it being $SA = a$, as is supposed. Make $x = \frac{1}{2}a$, it will be $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{27aa}}{2}$. Make $x = \frac{2}{3}a$, then $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{125aa}}{6}$. Let x be greater than a , and the quantity under the vinculum will be negative, the first term, on this supposition, being greater than the fourth, and the third than the second. Wherefore, taking x greater than a , the curve will be imaginary. It remains to examine whether the curve be always convex towards the axis PA; for it must be so in part, because of the asymptote NN. Make then this proportion: As $AE = \frac{1}{2}a$, (which corresponds to $x = \frac{1}{2}a$), is to $y = \frac{\sqrt{27aa}}{2}$, so is $AI = \frac{1}{3}a$ to a fourth, which will be $\frac{\sqrt{27aa}}{3}$. But $AI = \frac{1}{3}a$ corresponds to $x = \frac{2}{3}a$, and therefore to $y = \frac{\sqrt{125aa}}{6}$. Now $\frac{\sqrt{125aa}}{6}$ is greater than $\frac{\sqrt{27aa}}{3}$, and therefore the curve will be partly concave towards the axis PA. Consequently it will have a contrary flexure,

flexure, as shall be seen in its due place. And, because two equal values of y , one positive, the other negative, correspond to the same value of x , the curve will have another branch on the negative side of y , similar and equal to that on the positive side; and it will appear as is described in Fig. 136.

To describe the curve on the negative part of x , it will be necessary to change the signs of those terms in which the indeterminate is raised to an odd power; so that the equation will then be $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{-x^4 - 2a^3x + 2ax^3 + a^4}}{-x}$.

Now, first, let it be $x = 0$, then $y = \pm \frac{aa}{0}$, and therefore NN is still the asymptote to the curve on the negative part. Make $y = 0$, and it will be $-x^4 - 2a^3x + 2ax^3 + a^4 = 0$, whence we obtain four roots, as above: three are equal and positive, $x = a$, and one negative, $x = -a$. The negative root, which was positive in the foregoing case, is already fixed in the superior *conchoid*. Then the three equal values signify, that, in the pole, which is distant from the beginning of the x 's by the quantity a , the curve will have a regression, of which we shall treat in the Method for Contrary Flexures.

Make $x = \frac{1}{2}a$, then $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{3aa}}{2}$. Make $x = \frac{2}{3}a$, then $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{5aa}}{6}$. If

we take x greater than a , the curve will be imaginary; because, as the quantity under the vinculum is the product of $xx - 2ax + aa$ (a quantity always positive,) into $aa - xx$, which, in this supposition, is negative, the whole quantity under the radical will be negative, and therefore the ordinate y is imaginary. Now, make this proportion: As $PR = \frac{1}{2}a$ (making $SR = \frac{1}{2}a$),

is to $\frac{\sqrt{3aa}}{2}$, so is $PQ = \frac{1}{3}a$ (making $SQ = \frac{2}{3}a$), to a fourth, which will be

$\frac{\sqrt{3aa}}{3}$. But $y = \frac{\sqrt{5aa}}{6}$ corresponds to $SQ = \frac{2}{3}a$, or to $PQ = \frac{1}{3}a$, and $\frac{\sqrt{5aa}}{6}$

is less than $\frac{\sqrt{3aa}}{3}$; so that the curve will be always convex towards the axis NN,

supposing it not to have a contrary flexure; and it will have two equal and similar branches; for two equal values of y correspond to the same x , one of which is positive, the other negative. So that the curve will appear as described in Fig. 136.

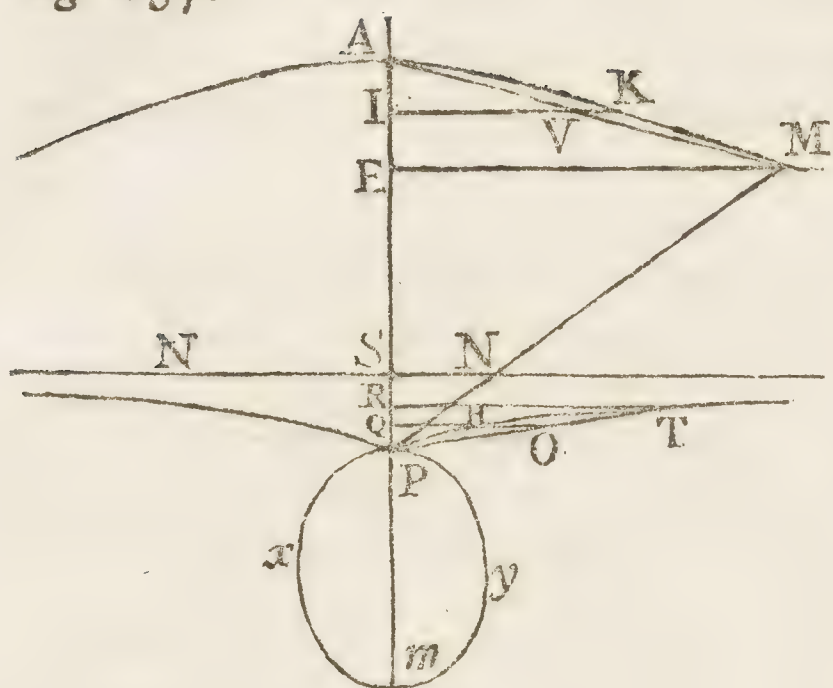
240. Now let b be less than a ; the equation therefore will be $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{aaxx - x^4 + 2aabbx - 2bx^3 + aabb - bbxx}}{x}$. Make $x = 0$, it will be $y =$ Another case of the same.

$\pm \frac{ab}{0} = \pm \infty$. Therefore, in this case also, NN (Fig. 137.) will be the

G g

asymptote

Fig. 137.



of the curve. Make $y = 0$, then $a^2x^2 - x^4 + 2a^2bx - 2bx^3 + a^2b^2 - b^2x^2 = 0$; the four roots of which (that is, $x = \pm a$, and two equal to each other, $x = -b$), will determine the points in which the curve cuts the axis PA. But, at present, it will be enough to consider the positive value $x = a$; and, because $SA = a$, A will be the vertex of the curve. Make $x = \frac{1}{2}a = SE$, then it will

$$\text{be } y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{3aa + 12ab + 12bb}}{2} = EM.$$

Make $x = \frac{2}{3}a = SI$, then it will be $y =$

$$\pm \frac{\sqrt{20aa + 60ab + 45bb}}{6} = IK. \text{ Make the proportion, } AE = \frac{1}{2}a \text{ to } EM = \frac{\sqrt{3aa + 12ab + 12bb}}{2}; \text{ so is } AI = \frac{1}{3}a, \text{ to a fourth, which will be } \frac{\sqrt{3aa + 12ab + 12bb}}{3};$$

in order to see if the curve be concave or convex to the axis SA. But, taking

$$AI = \frac{1}{3}a, \text{ we have } SI = \frac{2}{3}a, \text{ to which corresponds } IK = y = \frac{\sqrt{20aa + 60ab + 45bb}}{6};$$

$$\text{and it is found to be } IV = \frac{\sqrt{3aa + 12ab + 12bb}}{3} \text{ less than } IK, \text{ or } \frac{\sqrt{20aa + 60ab + 45bb}}{6}.$$

Therefore the curve will be concave towards the axis SA. But, as it applies itself continually to the asymptote NN, it will be also convex, and therefore it will have a contrary flexure.

It is plain, that, taking the absciss beyond the point A, that is, x greater than a , there will be no curve; for the second term of the radical will be greater than the first, the fourth greater than the third, and the sixth greater than the fifth; and therefore the quantity under the vinculum will be negative, that is, y will be imaginary.

And, because to the same absciss x two equal ordinates y correspond, one of which is positive, the other negative, the curve on the side of the negative ordinates will also be the same, and nearly as in Fig. 137.

To describe the curve on the side of the absciss x negative, in the equation I change the sign in those terms wherein the power of x is odd, and it is $y =$

$$\pm \frac{\sqrt{aaxx - x^4 - 2aax + 2bx^3 + aabb - bbxx}}{-x}. \text{ Make } x = 0, \text{ then } y = \pm \frac{ab}{0},$$

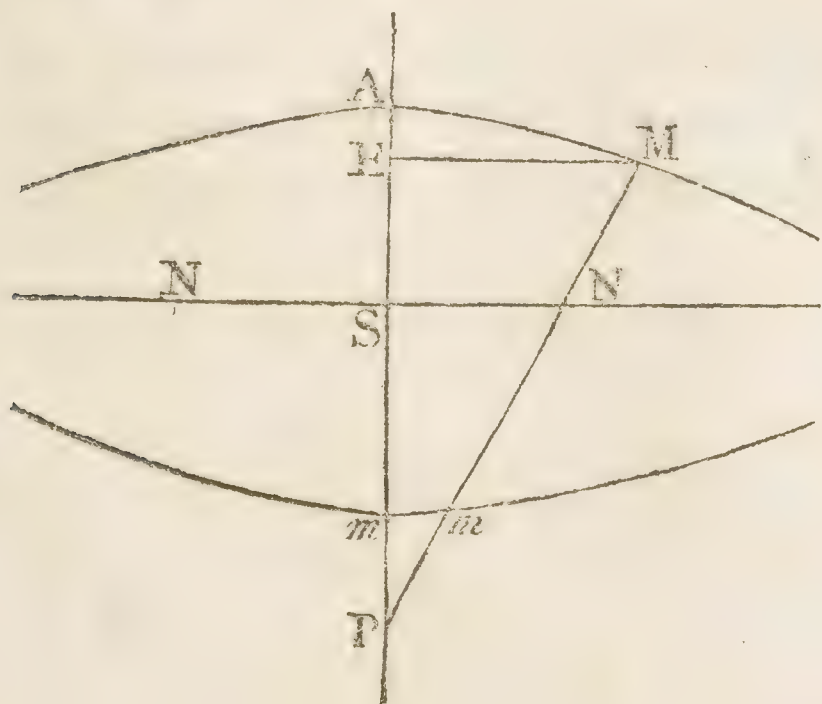
that is, infinite, and therefore NN shall be an asymptote. I make $y = 0$, and it will be $aaxx - x^4 - 2aax + 2bx^3 + aabb - bbxx = 0$; the four roots

roots of this equation, which are these two, $x = \pm a$, and two equal ones, $x = b$, will determine the points where the curve cuts the axis AP. The negative root $x = -a$ gives me the point A, the positive root $x = a$ the point m , and the two equal roots $x = b$ give the point P, so that there will be a node in the curve. Taking $PR = SR = \frac{1}{2}b = x$, it will be $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{4aa - bb}}{2} = RT$. Taking $PQ = \frac{1}{3}b$, that is, $SQ = x = \frac{2}{3}b$, it will be $y = \pm \frac{\sqrt{9aa - 4bb}}{6} = QH$. I make the analogy, $PR (\frac{1}{2}b) : RT (\frac{\sqrt{4aa - bb}}{2}) :: PQ (\frac{1}{3}b) : QO = (\frac{\sqrt{4aa - bb}}{3})$, in order to see whether the curve be concave or convex towards the axis PS. But $QO (\frac{\sqrt{4aa - bb}}{3})$ is greater than $QH (\frac{\sqrt{9aa - 4bb}}{6})$; so that the curve is convex towards the axis PS. And this follows also from it's approaching to it as an asymptote.

Taking the absciss beyond the point m , that is, x greater than a , there will be no curve, because the radical aforegoing is the same as $\sqrt{aa - xx} \times \sqrt{x^2 - 2bx + bb}$. But, supposing x greater than a , the quantity $aa - xx$ will be negative, and $xx - 2bx + bb$ is positive; therefore the product is negative, and the ordinate y is imaginary. Taking the absciss beyond the point P, that is, x greater than b , but less than a , it will be $aa - xx$, a positive quantity, as also, $xx - 2bx + bb$; therefore the product is positive, and the ordinate y is real; so that between P and m the curve will correspond, and will form a foliate Pm , having a node at P; and the curve will have the appearance nearly as in Fig. 137.

241. Lastly, let b be greater than a ; the equation will be the same as in the A third case former case, and, taking the absciss x positive, the curve will be also similar. of the same.

Fig. 138.



Then taking x negative, and supposing $y = 0$, the four roots of the equation, that is, $x = \pm a$, and the two equal roots $x = b$, will give, indeed, the same points, A, m , P, in the axis PA: but the point m will be above the point P. And, assuming the absciss greater than Sm , that is, x greater than a , the quantity $aa - xx$ will be negative; and because $xx - 2bx + bb$ is positive, their product will be negative, and therefore the ordinate y will be imaginary. Therefore the curve will not have the foliate

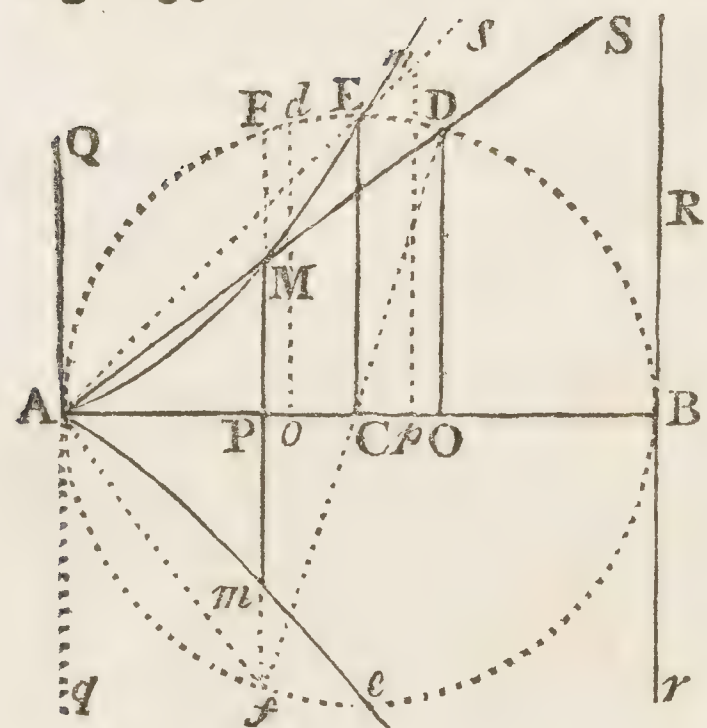
foliate of the former case, but will have it's vertex in m . And, because the curve is first concave, and then convex towards it's axis PS, as is easily seen, and approaches to the asymptote NN, it will be nearly as in Fig. 138.

The method improved of describing curves by points.

242. This method of describing curves by an infinite number of points, may perhaps be reduced to a greater perfection, by making use also of geometrical constructions. I shall give some Examples of it, which may serve to put the matter in a proper light.

EXAMPLE I.

Fig. 133.



Let us construct, by various points, the curve of Prob. I. § 236, which is the *Cissoid* of *Diocles*, the equation of which was found to be

$$y = \frac{xx}{\sqrt{ax - xx}}.$$

With radius $AC = \frac{1}{2}a$ let the circle AEB be described; and, taking at pleasure $AP = x$, I observe that the corresponding ordinate Pf is $= \sqrt{ax - xx}$. Through the point f I draw the diameter fCD , and joining the points A, D , with the line AD , the point m , in which it cuts the upper ordinate PF , continued if need be, will be in the *cissoid*. For, the angle in the semicircle fAD being a right angle, as also the angle APM of the co-ordinates, the

triangles AfP, APM , will be similar, and therefore we shall have the analogy $fP \cdot AP :: AP \cdot PM$; that is, $\sqrt{ax - xx} \cdot x :: x \cdot y$. Whence it is $y =$

$$\frac{xx}{\sqrt{ax - xx}}.$$

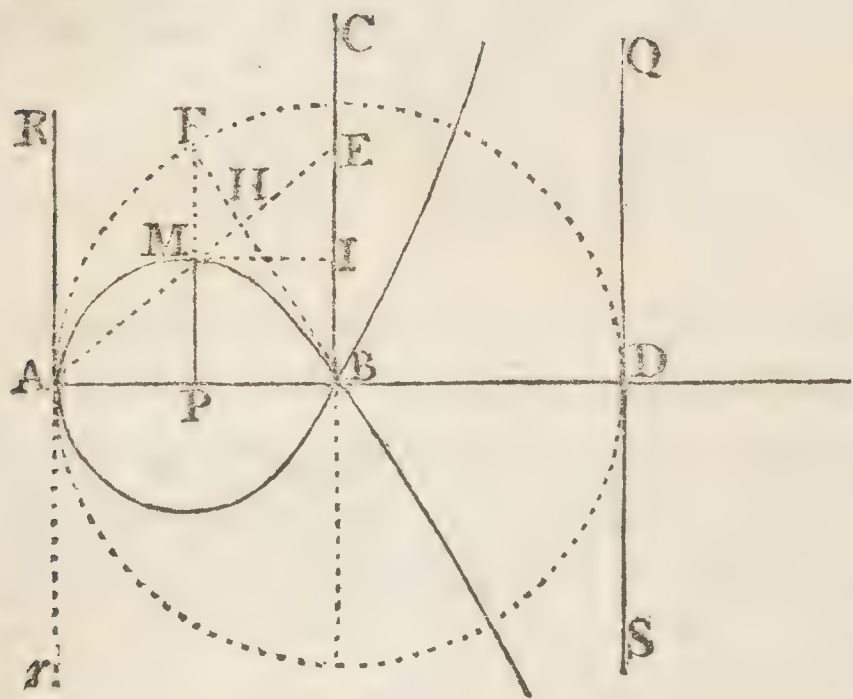
Q. E. I.

After another manner. Because the triangles PCf, CDO , are similar, the angles P, O , being right, and the angles at the vertex PCf, DCO , are equal, and also $Cf = CD$, it will be also $CP = CO$, a property of this curve.

EX-

EXAMPLE II.

Fig. 134.



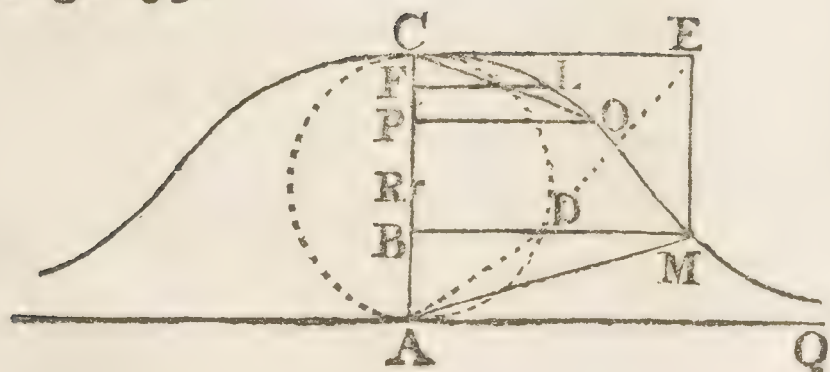
Let the curve be that of Prob. II. § 237, the equation of which is $\pm y = \frac{ax - xx}{\sqrt{2ax - xx}}$. With radius $AB = a$ let the circle AFD be drawn. Taking any line $AP = x$, from the point P draw the ordinate $PF = \sqrt{2ax - xx}$; and drawing the radius BF , let AHE be drawn perpendicular to it. This will cut the ordinate PF , continued if need be, in the point M , which will be in the curve AMB required. For, the triangles AMP , FMH , being similar, and likewise the triangles FMH , FBP , the triangle

AMP will be similar to the triangle BFP, and therefore we shall have $PF \cdot PB :: AP \cdot PM$, that is, $\sqrt{2ax - xx} \cdot a - x :: x \cdot y$. Whence we have the proposed equation $y = \frac{ax - xx}{\sqrt{2ax - xx}}$. Q. E. I.

After another manner. Because the triangle AMP is similar to the triangle AHB; and it has been seen above, that the triangle AMP is also similar to the triangle FPB. But the side $AB = BF$; therefore it will be also $BH = BP$. Let the right line MI be drawn parallel to AB, and then the triangles BHE, MIE, will be similar. But they will be also equilateral to each other, it being $BH = BP = MI$. Therefore it will be $EB = EM$, which is the fundamental property of the curve proposed.

EXAMPLE III.

Fig. 135.



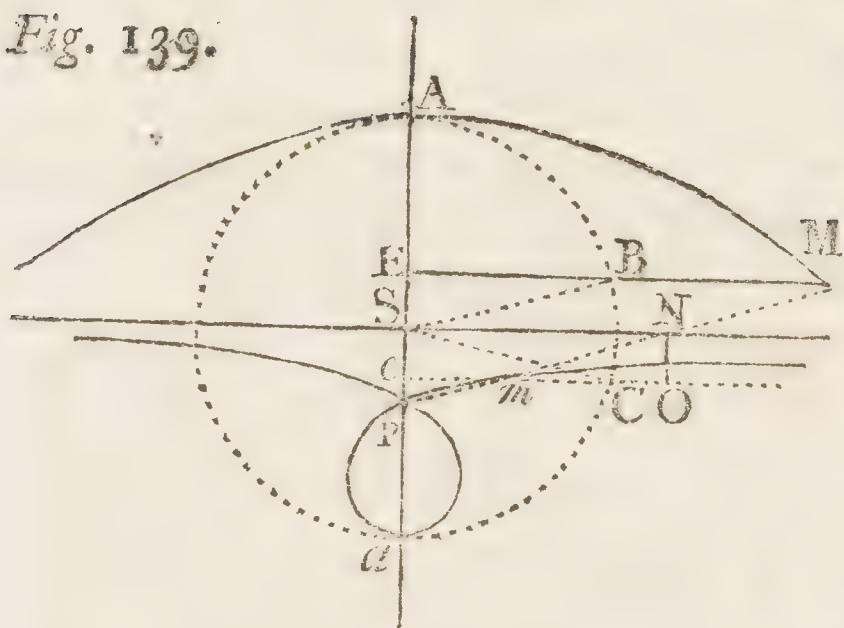
Let the curve to be described be that of Prob. III. § 238, called the *Witch*, the equation of which is $y = \frac{a\sqrt{ax - xx}}{x}$, the diameter of the circle, being $AC = a$. Take any line at pleasure, $AB = x$, and draw

draw the indefinite lines BM, CE, perpendicular to AC. Then through the point D, in which BM cuts the circle, let AD be drawn, which, produced, shall cut CE in E. Through the point E draw a parallel to AC; it shall meet BM in the point M, which will belong to the curve. For, by the property of the circle, it is $BD = \sqrt{ax - xx}$, and, by similar triangles ABD, ACE, it is

$AB \cdot BD :: AC \cdot CE$. That is, $x \cdot \sqrt{ax - xx} :: a \cdot CE = \frac{a\sqrt{ax - xx}}{x} = y$, the equation to the given curve.

EXAMPLE IV.

Fig. 139.



Let the *Conchoid* of *Nicomedes* of Prob. IV. § 239, be to be described by various points. Its equation is $\pm y = \frac{b \pm x \times \sqrt{aa - xx}}{\pm x}$. Make $SA = Sa = a$,

$SP = b$. With radius $SA = a$, let there be described the circle $ABCa$, and taking at pleasure two abscisses SE, Se , equal to each other, which may be called x positive and negative, draw the ordinates EB, eC , each of which shall be $= \sqrt{aa - xx}$, and

let them be produced indefinitely beyond the points B, C. Through the points S, B, let the right line SB be drawn, and through the point P a parallel to it, PM. The two points M, m , in which PM cuts the two right lines EB, eC , shall belong to the curve required; that is to say, the point M to the superior branch, and m to the inferior branch of the *conchoid*.

And as to the point M; because the two triangles SEB, PEM, are similar, it will be $SE \cdot EB :: PE \cdot EM$; that is, $x \cdot \sqrt{aa - xx} :: b + x \cdot y$. And consequently the equation will be $y = \frac{b + x \times \sqrt{aa - xx}}{x}$, in respect of the upper branch of the *conchoid*.

Then, as to the point m ; drawing the line SC, the triangle SeC will be similar and equal to the triangle SEB. For the triangle Pem is similar to the triangle SEB; therefore also it will be similar to SeC , and therefore we shall have the analogy $Pe \cdot em :: Se \cdot eC$; that is, $-x \cdot \sqrt{aa - xx} :: b - x \cdot y$.

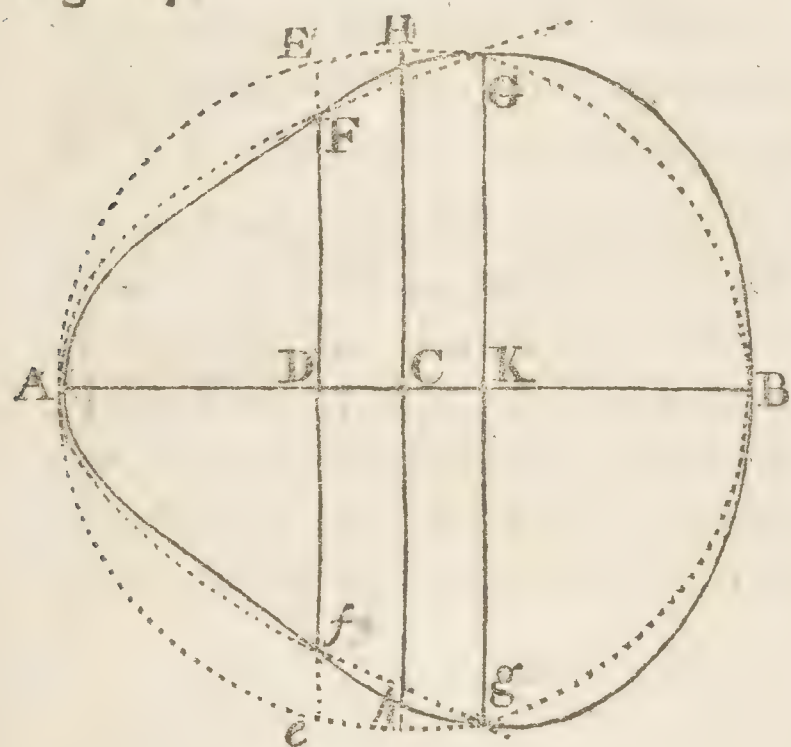
Whence we have the equation $y = \frac{b - x \times \sqrt{aa - xx}}{-x}$; which is the very same as should belong to the lower branch of the curve.

Through

Through the point S drawing the indefinite line SN parallel to the ordinates EM , em , from the construction above we shall easily obtain the principal property of the *conchoid*; which is, that, from the point or pole P , if we draw PM cutting the curve in the points M , m , and the line SN in the point N , the intercepted lines mN , NM , between the curve and the indefinite line SN , will always be of a constant length, and equal to $SA = SB = a$. For, by the construction, $SBMN$ will be a parallelogram, and therefore $NM = SB$. But, drawing NO parallel to Se , the triangles SBE , mNO , will be similar; and besides, $NO = Se = SE$. Therefore it will be $mN = SB$, and consequently $mN = NM$. Q. E. D.

243. The constructions of the three first Examples come out pretty simple, —Improved by the conic sections, there being nothing required to be done, but to draw a circle with a given diameter, and some right lines. On other occasions the Conic Sections must be admitted, which are sometimes to be described with variable diameters, parameters, and rectangles. But these may be taken as constant, in determining one or more points of the curve.

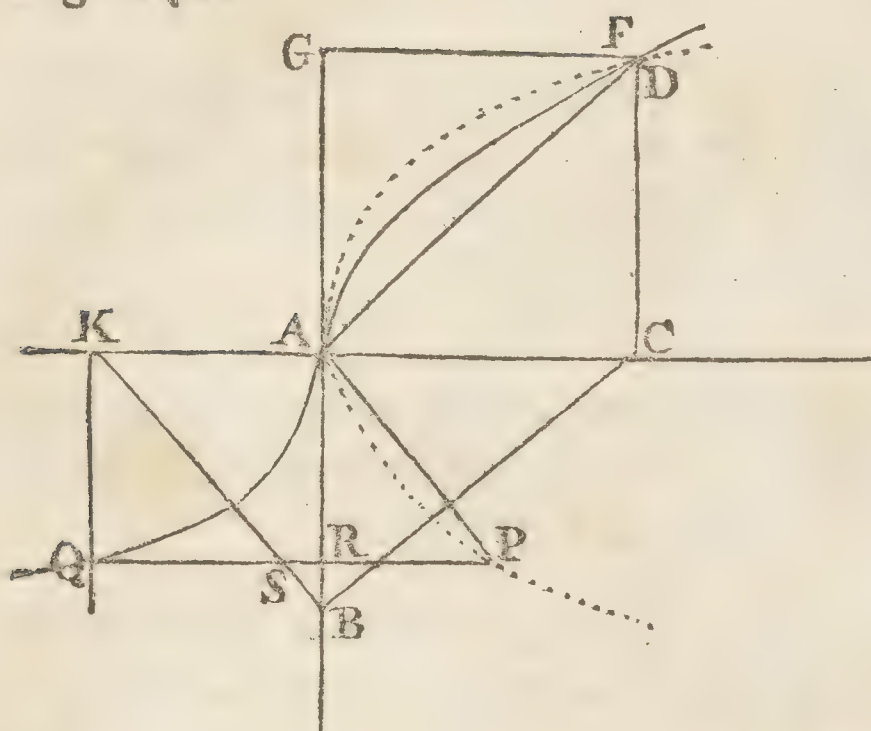
Fig. 140.



To give an example of it! Let us construct, by points, the curve belonging to this equation $x\sqrt{2ax - xx} = yy$. Draw the circle $AHBb$, whose diameter is $AB = 2a$. Take at pleasure $AD = KB = x$; it will be $DE = KG = \sqrt{2ax - xx}$. With parameter DE , to the axis AB , describe the *Apollonian* parabola $GFAfg$, and DF , Df , will give the positive and negative values of y , making $x = AD$. And KG , Kg , the positive and negative values of y , making $x = AK$. Wherefore the four points F , f , G , g , will be in the curve required. By a like method, and by varying the value of y , we may determine other points of the curve.

244. A second manner of constructing curves beyond the second degree, —By parabolas of higher degrees, will be that mentioned at § 220, by means of other lines of a lower degree. And, to begin with parabolas of any degree, it may be first observed, that the *Apollonian* parabola is the only one of it's kind, and is expressed by the equation $ax = yy$. The cubic parabolas are two, that is, $aax = y^3$, and $axx = y^3$. Those of the fourth degree are three, $a^3x = y^4$, $aaxx = y^4$, and $ax^3 = y^4$. And, in general, those of the degree expressed by n are in number $n - 1$, and are $ax^{n-1} = y^n$, $aax^{n-2} = y^n$, $a^3x^{n-3} = y^n$, $a^4x^{n-4} = y^n$, and so on successively, till the exponent of x is unity.

Fig. 142.



To axis KC let the parabola of the equation $y^3 = aaz$ be described, which, because it is the first cubic, we know already how to construct; and let this be QAD. It will be $AC = GD = z$, $AK = -z$, and $CD = AG = y$, $KQ = -y$. Take $AB = a$, and draw the right lines BC, BK, and through the point A draw AF parallel to BC, and AP parallel to KB. This supposed, it will be $BA \cdot AC :: AG \cdot GF$, that is, $a \cdot z :: y \cdot x$; and the point F will be in the curve-line proposed to be constructed. For, it being $a \cdot z :: y \cdot x$, and $z =$

$\frac{y^3}{aa}$, it will be $a \cdot \frac{y^3}{aa} :: y \cdot x$; that is, $a^3x = y^4$.

But, because when x is positive we may take y negative, which in this case will be KQ, and AK will be $-z$, we should have also $BA \cdot AK :: KQ$ ($= AR$) $\cdot RP$; or $a \cdot -z :: -y \cdot x$. Therefore the point P will also be in the curve $a^3x = y^4$.

247. Let it be proposed to construct the first parabola of the fifth degree, $a^4x = y^5$. This will also have two branches, one positive, the other negative. For, taking x positive, y will be positive, that is, $y = \sqrt[5]{a^4x}$. But, taking x negative, y will be negative, that is, $y = \sqrt[5]{-a^4x}$. These two branches go on infinitely, and are concave to the axis AB. To proceed to the construction. Make $y^4 = a^3z$, and substituting this value in the proposed equation, it will be $ax = yz$, or $a \cdot z :: y \cdot x$. The first parabola of the fifth degree constructed.

To the axis AB (Fig. 141.) describe the parabola of the equation $y^4 = a^3z$, and let it be DAE. It being $AB = z$, it will be $BE = y$, and $BD = -y$. Make $AC = a$, and draw CB, and KAF parallel to it. Then draw the right line EFG, and the parallel DVK. This supposed, it will be $CA \cdot AB :: AG \cdot GF$, or $a \cdot z :: y \cdot x$; and the point F will be in the curve to be constructed. For, it being $a \cdot z :: y \cdot x$, as also, $a^3z = y^4$, it will be $a \cdot \frac{y^4}{a^3} :: y \cdot x$, or $y^5 = a^4x$, the equation to the curve proposed.

Now, because, x being negative, y will also be negative, the analogy $a \cdot z :: y \cdot x$ will be changed into this, $a \cdot z :: -y \cdot -x$. Wherefore, taking $AV = DB$, it will be $CA \cdot AB :: AV \cdot VK$, or $a \cdot z :: -y \cdot -x$. Whence the point K will be in the curve proposed to be constructed. The branch AMF will be positive, and ANK will be the negative branch.

The first parabola of any degree constructed.

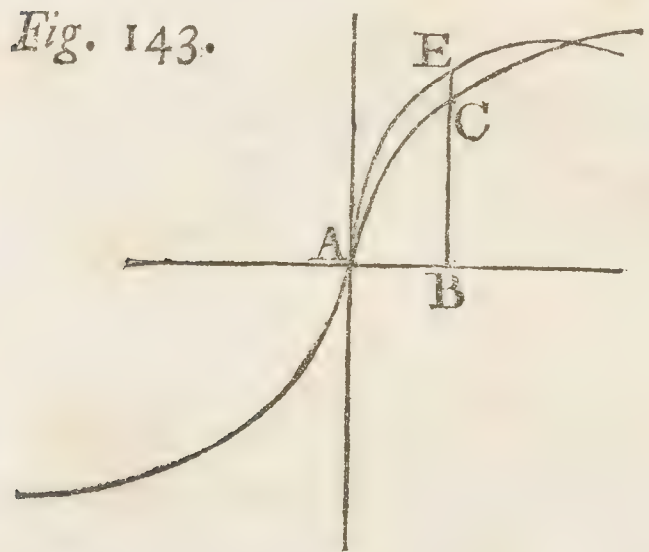
248. And, in general, let it be proposed to construct the parabola whose equation is $a^{n-1}x = y^n$. Make $y^{n-1} = a^{n-2}z$, and substituting this value in the proposed equation, we shall still have $zy = ax$. Whence it may be perceived, that we may always construct any first parabola by means of a triangle, and of the first parabola of the next inferior degree.

Construction of other succeeding parabolas.

249. Now it will be easy to go on to the construction of the other succeeding parabolas, or those of the second, third, fourth, &c. of any degree; for these also may be constructed by the construction of their first parabolas.

Let it be proposed to construct the second cubic parabola, whose equation is $axx = y^3$. I make $y^3 = aaz$, and, by substituting, instead of y^3 , it's value in the proposed equation, it will be $xx = az$.

Fig. 143.



To the axis AB let there be described the *Apollonian* parabola AC, whose equation is $xx = az$; then to the same axis describe the first cubic parabola of the equation $y^3 = aaz$; and it being $AB = z$, it will be $BE = y$. But, in the *Apollonian* parabola AC, because $AB = z$, it will be $BC = x$. Therefore we shall always have the two co-ordinates x, y , of the second cubic parabola.

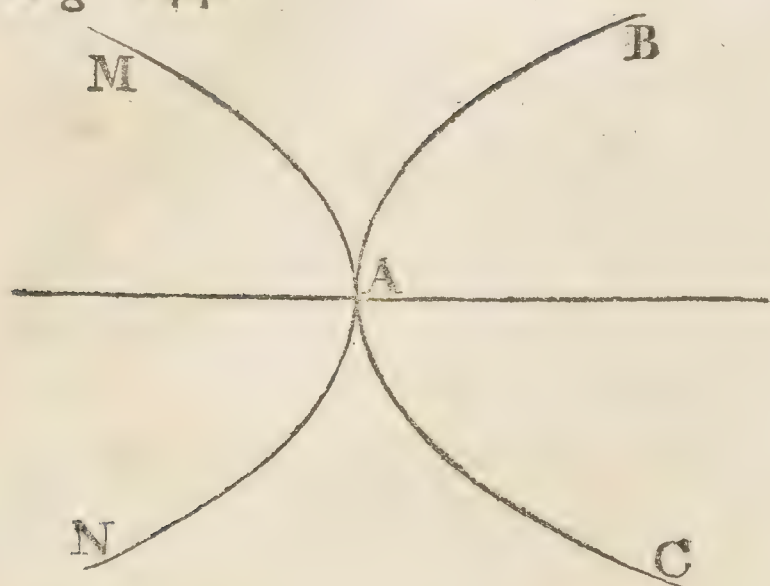
Let it be proposed to construct the third parabola of the fourth degree, whose equation is $ax^3 = y^4$. I make $a^3z = y^4$, and, by substitution, it will be $x^3 = aaz$. Let this first cubical parabola $x^3 = aaz$ be constructed, and to the same axis let there also be constructed the first of the fourth degree, $y^4 = a^3z$. The two ordinates of these curves, corresponding to the same absciss z , will give the co-ordinates x, y , of the proposed curve.

In the construction of all others, of any superior degree, we may proceed in the same method; these examples are sufficient, the thing itself being very plain.

Squaring the equation produces a reduplication of the curve.

250. It only remains to be observed, that the second parabola of the fourth degree, $aaxx = y^4$, is no other than the *Apollonian* parabola, but redoubled the contrary way. For, first, if it be $aaxx = y^4$, it will be also, by extracting the fourth root, $\sqrt[4]{aaxx} = \sqrt[4]{ax} = \pm y$. But $\sqrt[4]{ax} = \pm y$, or $ax = yy$, is no other than the equation to the *Apollonian* parabola. Our curve is therefore a common parabola, but redoubled; because the term $aaxx$ is alike generated, as well from $+ax \times +ax$, as from $-ax \times -ax$; which may be equally verified, because $\sqrt[4]{aaxx} = \sqrt[4]{+ax \times +ax} = \sqrt[4]{-ax \times -ax} = \sqrt[4]{ax} = \pm y$. Wherefore,

Fig. 144.



Wherefore, to negative x will correspond real y , and the branch MAN on the negative side will be perfectly like the branch BAC on the positive side, having respect to both the expressions $\sqrt[4]{aaxx} = \sqrt{ax} = \pm y$. But the *Apollonian* parabola has no branch on the negative side; for, putting x negative, it will be $\sqrt{-ax} = \pm y$; so that the curve will be imaginary.

If we raise the equation $ax = yy$ to the third power, the curve corresponding to the equation $a^3x^3 = y^6$ will be no other than the *Apollonian* parabola only. Raising the equation $ax = yy$ to the fourth power, the curve corresponding to the formula $a^4x^4 = y^8$ becomes the common parabola redoubled the contrary way. And, in general, if the power to which the formula $ax = yy$ is raised shall be even, the *Apollonian* parabola redoubled will exhibit the curve; if the power be odd, the common parabola will be sufficient.

The same doctrine may be applied to all first parabolas and hyperbolas, whose canonical equations are $a^{n-1}x = y^n$, taking for n any integer number, affirmative or negative. This being raised to an even power, the proper curve of the new equation will be the parabola or hyperbola $a^{n-1}x = y^n$ redoubled the contrary way. If the power be odd, the reduplication vanishes, and there will remain the simple genuine curve of the equation $a^{n-1}x = y^n$.

251. From the construction of parabolas of any degree, we may go on to the construction of hyperbolas also of any degree.

Construction
of hyperbo-
loids.

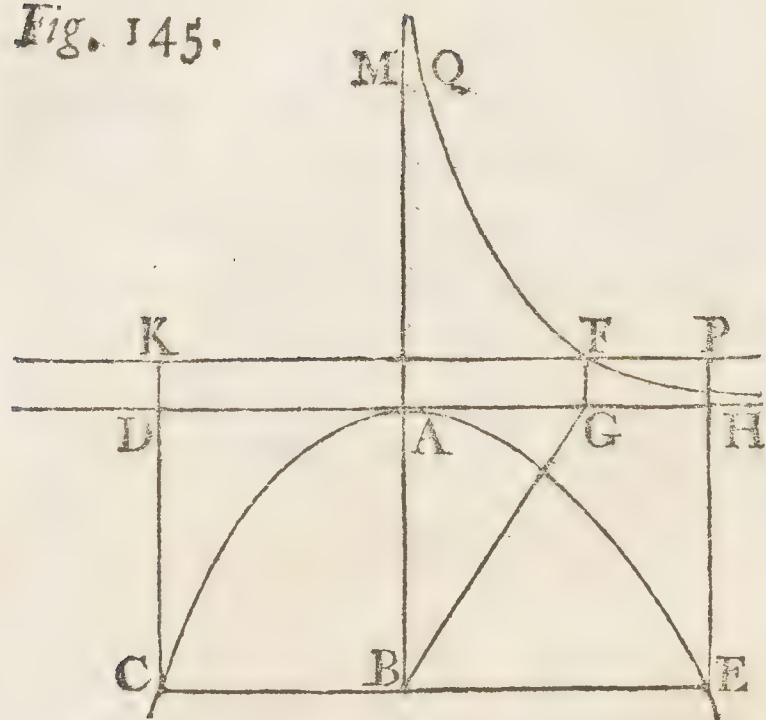
The hyperboloids of the third degree are two; that is, $a^3 = xxy$, and $a^3 = xyy$. Let it be proposed to construct the hyperboloid of the equation $a^3 = xxy$. This curve will have two branches which approach to asymptotes; both of them will have their ordinates positive, but the abscisses in one will be positive, in the other negative.

To construct it, make $xx = az$, and, by substitution, it will be $aa = zy$. Between the asymptotes AM, AG, (Fig. 145.) describe the hyperbola FQ of the equation $aa = zy$. Then taking $AG = z$, it will be $GF = y$; then from the point G, at half a right angle, let be drawn GB, and it will be $AB = AG = z$. To the axis AB let there be described the parabola CAE of the equation

H h 2

equation

Fig. 145.

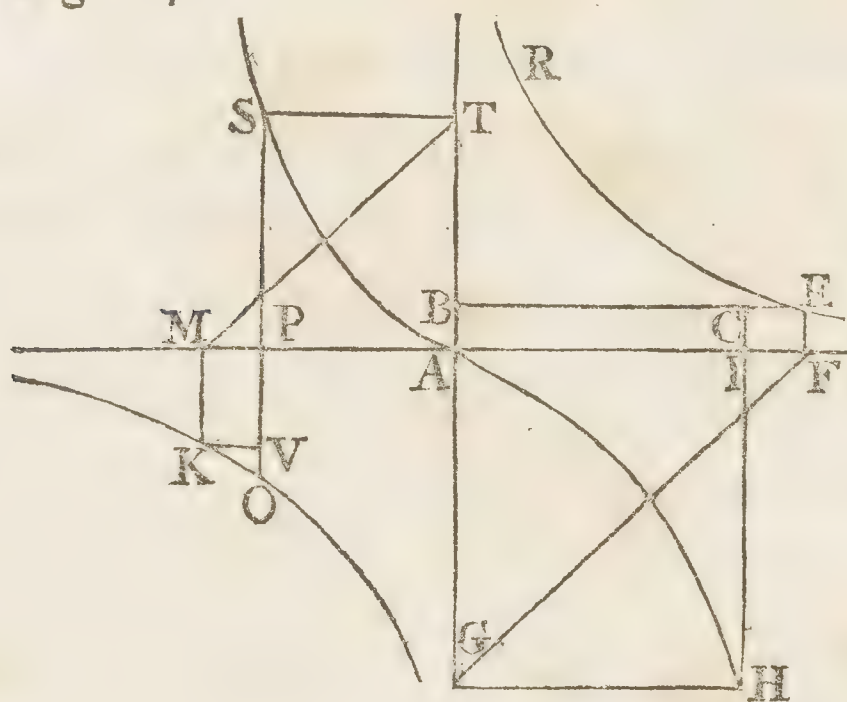


equation $ax = xx$, and drawing the ordinates BC, BE, and the indefinite lines CK, EP, parallel to BA, it will be $AH = BE = x$. And drawing FK parallel to GD, it will be $HP = GF = y$. In the same manner, it will be $AD = BC = -x$, $DK = y$; and the points P, K, will be in the curve proposed.

I forbear to give the construction of the equation $a^3 = xyy$, because it is the very same curve, only the co-ordinates have changed their places.

—of higher
hyperboloids. 252. Let there be proposed an hyperboloid of the fourth degree, and let it's equation be $a^4 = x^3y$. This curve will have two branches, which apply to asymptotes, in one of which x will be positive, and y positive, and in the other x will be negative, and y negative.

Fig. 146.



Put $x^3 = aaz$, and, by substitution, we shall have $zy = aa$. Between the asymptotes MF, TG, produced indefinitely, let the hyperbola of the equation $zy = aa$, or ER, KO, be described. Then it will be $AF = z$, $FE = y$, $AM = -z$, $MK = -y$. From the point F, at half a right angle, draw FG, to which let MT be parallel, and it will be $AG = AF = z$, and $AT = AM = -z$. To the axis TG let be described the cubic parabola SAH of the equation $x^3 = aaz$, and it will be $AI = GH = x$, and $AP = TS = -x$.

Whence, drawing the right lines EC, KV, parallel to AI, it will be $IC = y$, and $PV = -y$, and the points C, V, will be in the proposed curve.

Here, also, I omit the construction of the equation $a^4 = xy^3$, because, only changing the places of the co-ordinates, it is the same as before. Also, I omit the construction of the equation $a^4 = xxyy$, because it is reduced to the Apollonian hyperbola.

Other hyper-
boloids con-
structed.

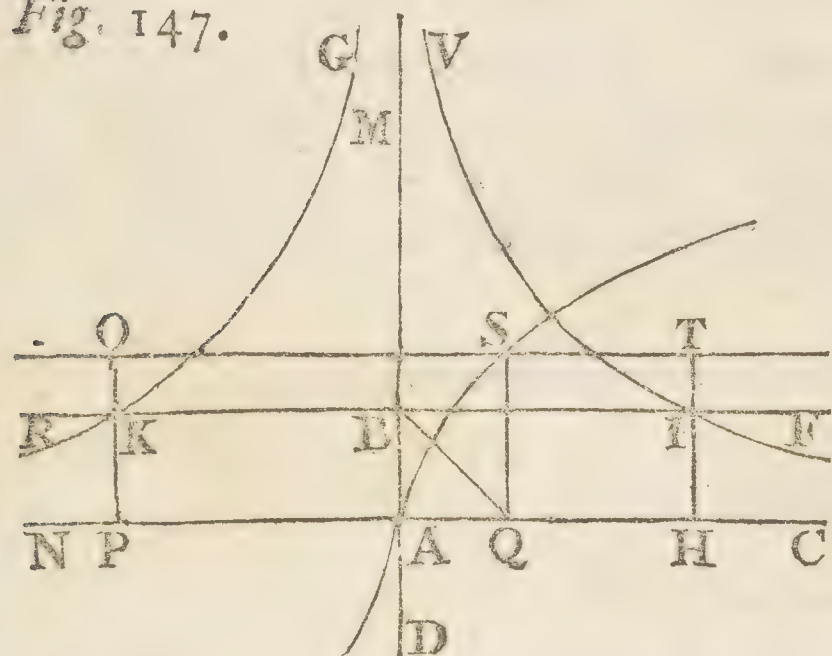
253. Let the hyperboloid of the fifth degree be proposed, and, first, let the equation be $a^5 = x^4y$. This will have two branches, which approach to asymptotes; in one of which, taking x positive, y will also be positive. In the other, taking x negative, yet, however, y will be positive.

Make

Make $x^4 = a^3z$; then, substituting, it will be $aa = zy$. Between the asymptotes AG, AM, (Fig. 145.) describe the *Apollonian* hyperbola FQ of the equation $aa = zy$; then, taking $AG = z$, it will be $GF = y$. From the point G, at half a right angle, draw the right line GB, and it will be $AB = AG = z$. To the axis AB describe the parabola CAE of the equation $x^4 = a^3z$, and it will be $BE = AH = x$, $BC = AD = -x$; and, drawing FK parallel to GD, and CK, EP, perpendicular to the same, it will be $HP = DK = GF = y$, and the points P, K, will be in the curve proposed.

Let $a^5 = x^3y^2$ be another equation of the hyperboloid of the same degree; this will have two branches, because to the same positive x will correspond two ordinates y , one positive, the other negative.

Fig. 147.



Make $x^3 = aaz$; then, substituting, it will be $a^3 = zyy$. Between the asymptotes DM, CN, let there be described the hyperboloid RG, FV, of the equation $a^3 = zyy$, and making $AH = y$, $AP = -y$, it will be $HI = z = PK = AB$. To the axis PH let there be described the cubic parabola AS of the equation $x^3 = aaz$, and from the point B draw BQ at half a right angle, and raise the perpendicular QS: then it will be $AQ = z$, $QS = x$. Through the point S draw the right line OT parallel to the asymptote NC, which

may meet the produced lines HI, PK, in the points T, O. Then, it being $AH = y$, it will be $HT = x$, $AP = -y$, $PO = x$; and the points O, T, will be in the curve proposed.

The constructions of the other two equations, $a^5 = x^2y^3$, and $a^5 = xy^4$, will be after the same manner, only making the co-ordinates to change places. And by the same artifice may all the hyperboloids of any degree be easily constructed.

254. It may be observed, that all the first parabolas, which are described Observation about one and the same axis, will cut one another in the same point. For, on the forms of the first parabolooids, taking for every one of them the same absciss $x = a$, they will all have the same corresponding ordinate $y = a$; which could not be, except they all cut in the same point.

255. Also, the parabolas of higher dimensions (meaning higher than the first,)—of higher tend first to arrive at the point of section, above those of an inferior degree, ^{paraboloids and hyperboloids.} approaching nearer to the tangent of the vertex, and after the section they approach to the axis, these more than those. For, in the *Apollonian* parabola, it being $y = \sqrt{ax}$, in the first cubic, $y = \sqrt[3]{aax}$, in the first of the fourth degree,

degree, $y = \sqrt[4]{a^3x}$, and so on; if we take x less than a , then \sqrt{ax} will be less than $\sqrt[4]{a^3x}$, and this will be less than $\sqrt[4]{a^3x}$, and so on. But, on the contrary, taking x greater than a , it will be \sqrt{ax} greater than $\sqrt[4]{a^3x}$, this greater than $\sqrt[4]{a^3x}$; and so on.

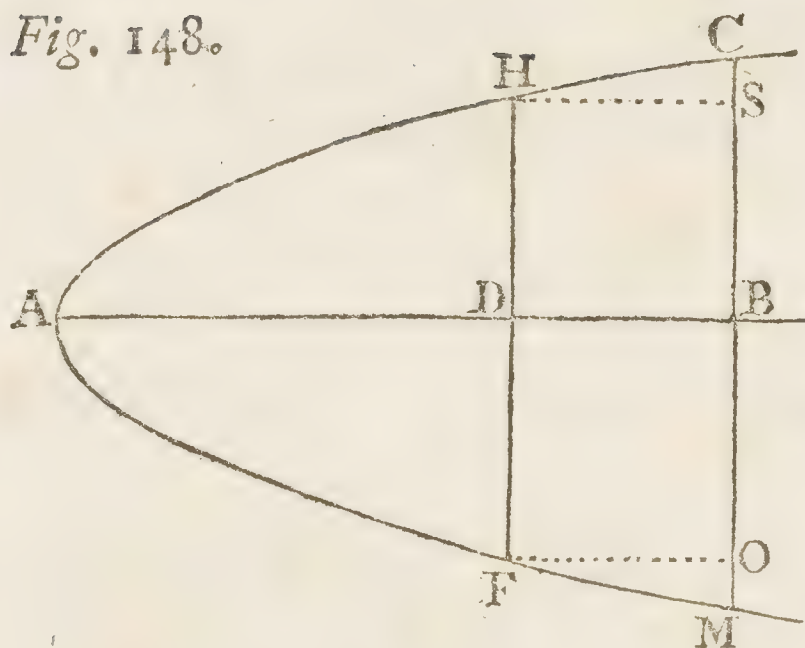
After the same manner, and for a like reason, the hyperboloids (meaning also the first,) all cut one another at the vertex, and those of higher dimensions tend after the point of section between those of lower dimensions and the asymptote in which the x 's are taken. And on the part of the asymptote, parallel to y , the inferior tend within, between those of higher dimensions and the asymptote.

Curves of
several terms
constructed;
divided into
three cases.

256. There remains now to construct such equations as have several terms, in which I shall distinguish three cases. Those of the first case I call such, which have one term only, in which the indeterminate y is found, and that of one dimension alone. Of the second case are those, which have one term only in which y is found, but that raised to any power. Those are of the third case which have many terms in which y is found; and that raised to any power.

CASE I. EXAMPLE I.

An example
of the first
case.



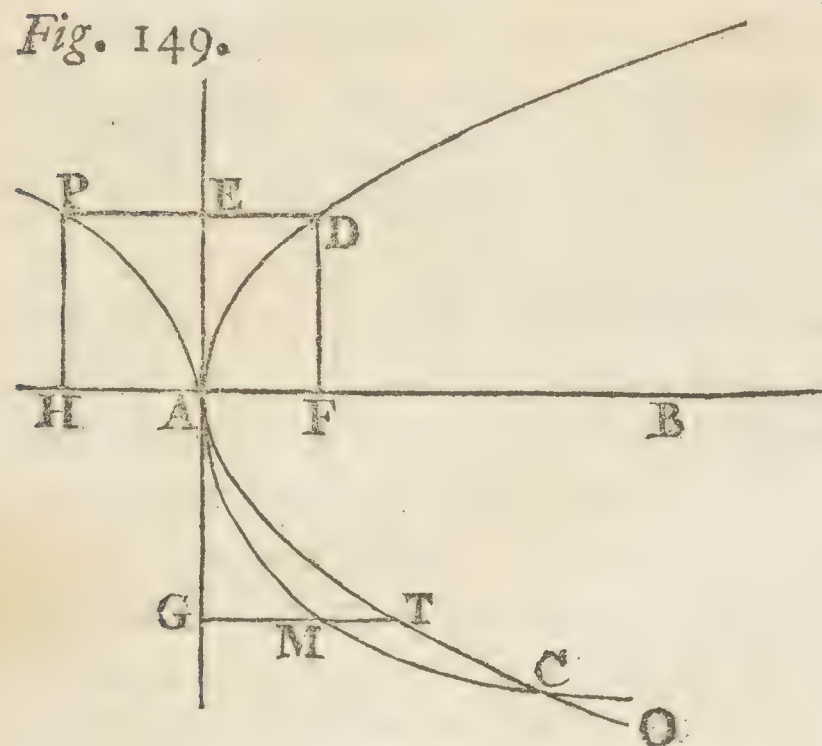
257. Let it be proposed to construct the curve of this equation $a^4 - x^4 = a^3y$. Make $y = t - q$, by which the given equation may be resolved into these two, $a^4 = a^3t$, $x^4 = a^3q$. To the axis AB let the parabola MAC of the equation $x^4 = a^3q$ be described; and it being $AD = q$, it will be $DH = x$, $DF = -x$. But, by the equation $a^4 = a^3t$, it is $t = a$; and therefore, taking $AB = a = t$, it will be $t - q = y$. Whence, taking at pleasure any absciss $BS = DH = x$, and $BO =$

$DF = -x$, the lines SH, OF, parallel to BA, will be the corresponding ordinates of the curve proposed, which is one portion of the same parabola of the fourth degree.

EXAMPLE II.

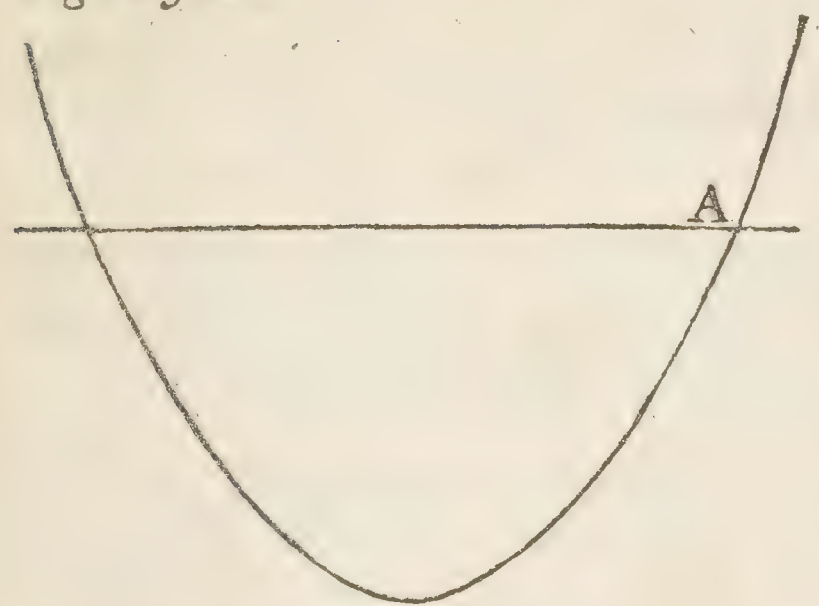
258. Let it be proposed to construct the curve of the equation $x^4 + ax^3 = a^3y$. Another example. By the rules already known, we may perceive this curve to have three branches, two infinite and positive, and one negative, together with a *maximum*, which at present we can take no notice of; and the axis will be cut in two points.

Fig. 149.



Make $y = z + t$, whence we may have two equations, $x^4 = a^3z$, and $x^3 = aat$. To the axis AB let the parabola MAD of the equation $x^4 = a^3z$ be described; and it being $AF = z$, it will be $FD = AE = x$. Through the same point A let the cubic parabola CAP of the equation $x^3 = aat$ be described, and $PE = t$ will correspond to the same x . Whence, it being $AE = x$, it will be $PE + ED = z + t = y$, making PD parallel to AF. Whence it may be seen, that, taking x positive, the ordinate y increases *in infinitum*.

Fig. 150.



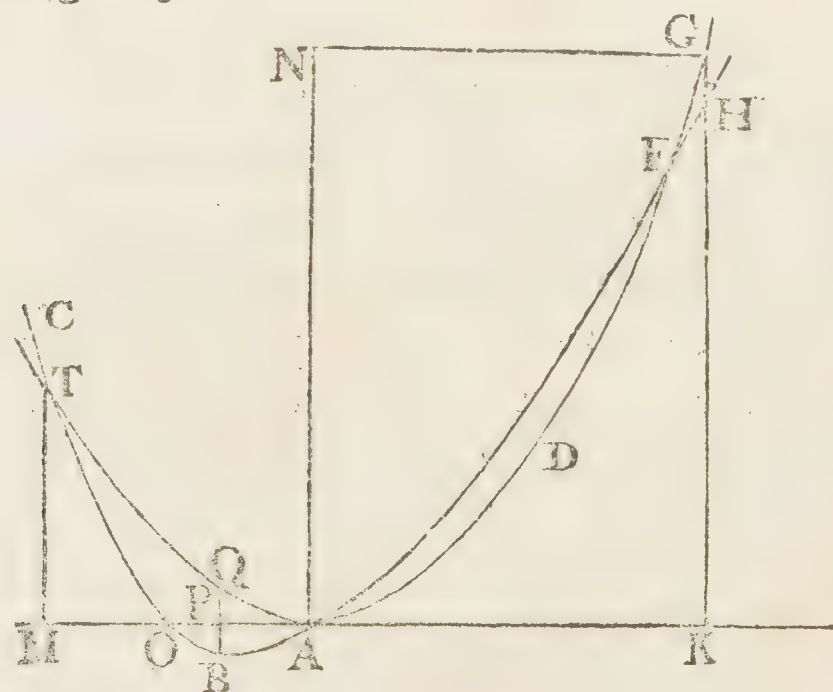
Then, taking x negative, t will be negative, and consequently $y = z - t$. Let $AG = x$ negative, it will be $GM = z$, $GT = t$, whence $y = MT$ negative; and among all the values of MT , there will be a greatest. Taking $x = -a$, it will be $GM = GT$, whence $y = 0$. Taking x negative, and greater than a , it will be $GM > GT$, a positive quantity; whence y will be positive, and will increase *ad infinitum*. The curve will be nearly of the form of Fig. 150, taking x from the point A.

EXAMPLE III.

259. Let it be proposed to construct the curve of the equation $x^4 + ax^3 - aax^2 = a^3y$. This curve will have four branches, two positive and infinite, and two negative and finite. It will cut the axis in two points, and will touch it in first case.

one. It will have two negative *maxima*, &c. as will be known by the rules to be delivered in their due place.

Fig. 151.



Put $y = z - q$, and make the two equations $x^4 + ax^3 = a^3z$, and $-xx = -aq$. The curve of the equation $x^4 + ax^3 = a^3z$ we know already how to construct by help of this method, and let it be CBADG (Fig. 151.); in which, taking $AK = x$ positive, it will be $KG = z$. Taking x negative $= AP$, it will be z negative $= PB$; taking x negative and greater than AO , it will be z positive. To the axis AN let the parabola TAH of the equation $xx = aq$ be described. It being then $AK = x$ positive, it will be $KH = q$, and $GH = z - q = y$, which

will increase *in infinitum* as x increases *in infinitum*. In the point F it will be $z = q$, and $y = 0$. Between the points F and A , q will be greater than z ; whence $z - q$ will be a negative quantity, and y negative, and there will be a negative *maximum*. In the point A , it will be $z = 0$, $q = 0$, $y = 0$. Taking x negative equal to AP , it will be $z = BP$, and negative; whence y is always negative. Between the points A and O there will be a *maximum* BQ ; whence there will be a greatest q negative. Taking x negative and greater than AO , z will be positive, but less than q ; whence y is negative. Taking x negative and equal to AM , it will be $z = q$, and $y = 0$. Taking x negative and greater than AM , it will be always z greater than q ; whence it will be always y positive *in infinitum*.

If the equation should more abound in terms, the same artifice might be used; and, though the construction in this case might become more compounded and perplexed, yet, however, the method would still obtain.

We might construct the last equation in a different manner, by making $y = z + t - q$, and thence deriving three equations, $x^4 = a^3z$, $x^3 = aat$, $-xx = -aq$, and, by means of these three auxiliary curves, we might proceed to the construction of the principal curve; but I omit this for brevity.

The co-ordinates may make any angle.

260. Perhaps, in these constructions, and in the few that follow, it may seem necessary that the angle of the co-ordinates should be a right angle, it being always supposed to be such. But it will appear, after a little reflection, that this angle may be as we please; especially if we give a little attention to the angle of the co-ordinates of the subsidiary curves introduced, relatively to the angle of the co-ordinates of the curve of the given equation.

CASE

CASE II. EXAMPLE IV.

261. Let it be proposed to construct this equation, $x^n \pm a^s x^{n-s} \pm a^m x^{n-m}$, &c. $= y^t$. Make $y^t = a^{t-1} z$, and substituting this value instead of y^t , the equation will be $x^n \pm a^s x^{n-s} \pm a^m x^{n-m}$, &c. $= a^{t-1} z$. By the method of the first case, this curve may be constructed; then describe the parabola of the equation $y^t = a^{t-1} z$, and we shall have the relation between x and y in the proposed equation.

The second case of curves constructed.

CASE III. EXAMPLE V.

262. Let it be proposed to construct the equation $x^m \pm ax^n \pm bx^s$, &c. $= y^p \pm y^q$, &c. Make $y^p \pm y^q$, &c. $= z$; then, by substitution, the equation will be $x^m \pm ax^n \pm bx^s$, &c. $= z$. By the method of the first case, each of these two auxiliary curves may be constructed to the same axis, in which z is to be taken; and we shall have the relation of the two co-ordinates x and y of the curve proposed.

The third case constructed, with a general example.

263. Hitherto I have considered only those equations which have their indeterminates separate; so that, when the indeterminates are involved with each other, the rules hitherto given cannot take place.

To separate the indeterminates when involved.

In these cases there is need, either by the common division, or by the extraction of roots, or by a congruous substitution, or by other expedients, to contrive a separation of the said indeterminates. As, if we had the equation $ax^3y + ax^2y = a^2x^2 + x^4$, dividing by $a^3 + ax^2$, it would be $y = \frac{aaxx + x^4}{a^3 + axx}$. And, if the equation were $aaxy + xxyy = x^4 + a^4$, making the substitution of $z = \frac{yx}{a}$, we should have the equation $a^3z + aazx = x^4 + a^4$, in which the indeterminates or unknown quantities are separate.

The proposed equations being thus prepared, we may proceed to their construction in the following manner.

structed by the method of the third case, and we shall have the two co-ordinates x and z . Then make the analogy, $x : z :: a : y$, which will be the ordinate required. If one substitution be not enough, to free the indeterminates from being involved together, we must try more than one; and when none will succeed, the equations elude this method, and we must have recourse to other artifices.

266. A convenient substitution may also be of use in other cases, in which the indeterminates are already separate; and may often suggest a construction which is more easy and elegant. Wherefore it may not be amiss to try several ways, that we may choose that which will prove to best advantage.

EXAMPLE VIII.

267. Let the equation be $y^4 - 4ay^3 + 4a^2yy = 2a^3x$. Make $2a^3x = z^4$, and therefore it will be $y^4 - 4ay^3 + 4a^2yy = z^4$, that is, $yy - 2ay = zz$, or $2ay - yy = zz$. Conclusion of the examples.

Therefore I construct this *locus*, which in the first case will be, by two opposite equilateral hyperbolas, with transverse axis equal to $2a$; and in the second case, by a circle with diameter $= 2a$: and, in general, by this and that together.

Fig. 153.

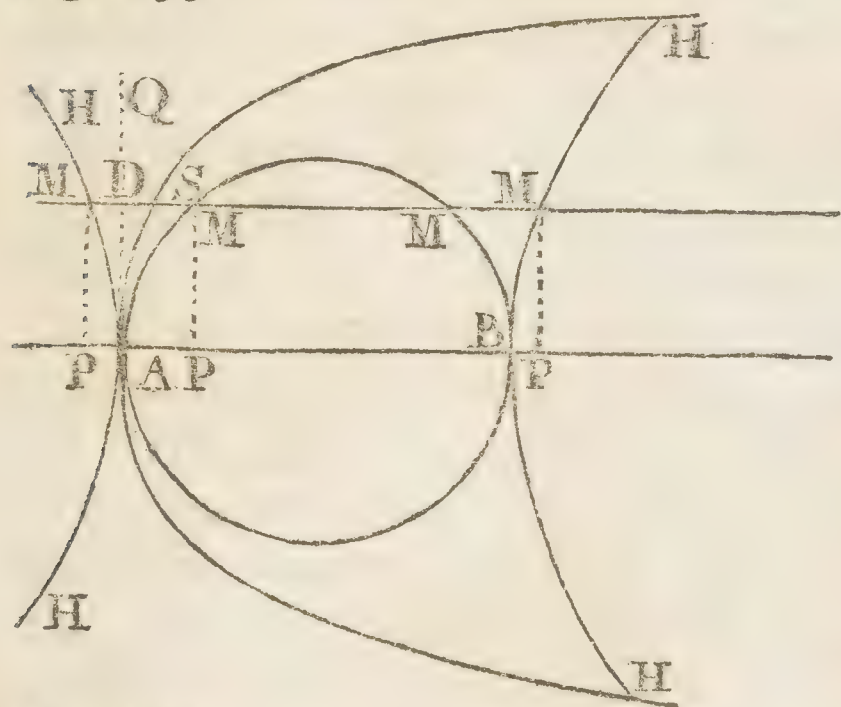
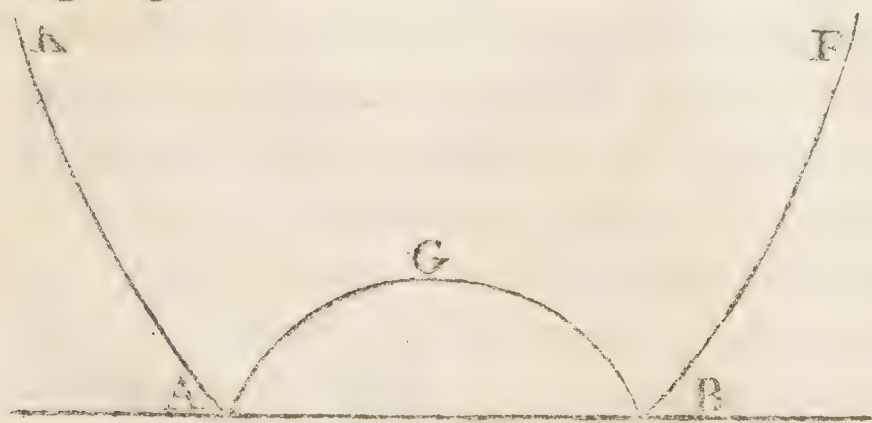


Fig. 154.



With transverse diameter $AB = 2a$, (Fig. 153.) let there be described the two equilateral hyperbolas AMH , BMH , and the circle AMB . Then with vertex A , let the parabola of the equation $2a^3x = z^4$ be described, and raising the indefinite perpendicular AQ , and taking any line $AD = z$; then drawing MM parallel to AB , it will be $DS = x$, and $DM = y$, positive in the circle and in the hyperbola from A towards B , and negative in the hyperbola on the opposite part; and the curve will be nearly as $KAGBF$ (Fig. 154.); in which the two branches, BF positive and AK negative, will go on *ad infinitum*; and there will be no branch under the axis AB , because it can never be x negative.

S E C T. VI.

Of the Method De Maximis et Minimis, of the Tangents of Curves, of Contrary Flexure and Regression; making use only of the Common Algebra.

To find the maxima and minima of quantities, by comparison with an equation of two equal roots.

268. Although the Calculus of Infinitesimals be the simplest and the shortest method, and also the most universal, for managing such speculations; yet I was willing, before I finished this Tract of Analyticks, or of what is called the *Cartesian* or *Common Algebra*, to show very briefly, and by way of introduction, how the solution of such questions may be performed, in geometrical curves, or such as are expressed by finite algebraical equations, without the assistance of the *Differential Calculus*, or what is also called *The Method of Fluxions*.

Fig. 155.

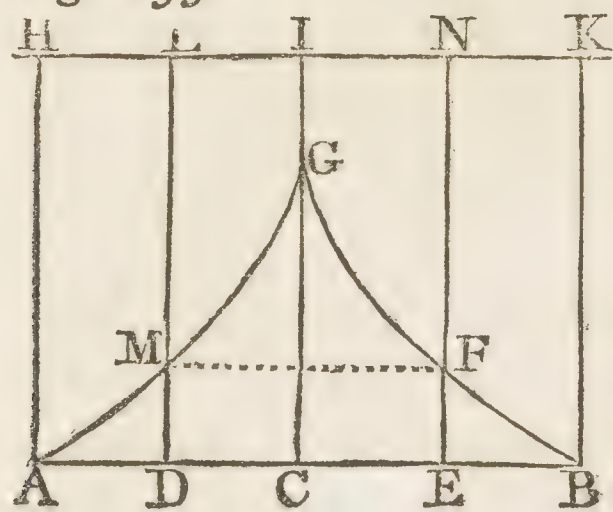
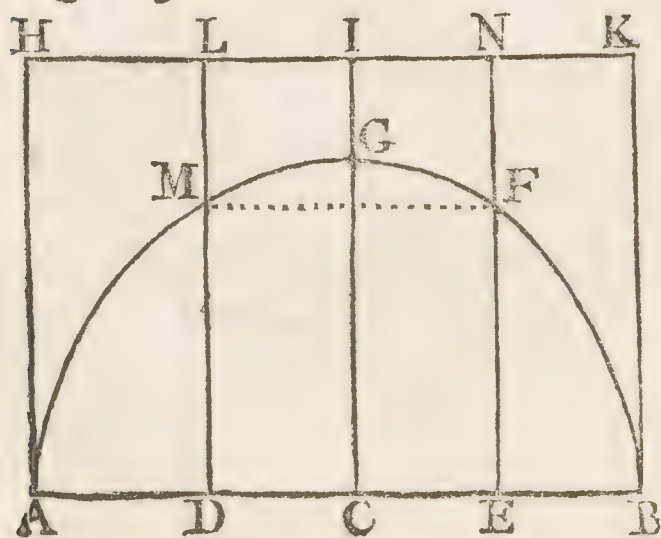


Fig. 156.



And to begin by the *Maxima* and *Minima*; that is to say, to find in geometrical curves the greatest or the least ordinates. Let the curve be AGB (Fig. 155, 156.), and taking any ordinate DM, draw MF parallel to the axis of the abscissæ AB, the two ordinates DM, EF, will be equal, to which two different abscissæ AD, AE, will correspond. But the more the ordinates DM, EF, shall move approaching nearer to each other, the difference of the abscissæ AD, AE, shall be so much the less; till at last the two ordinates DM, EF, coinciding with the greatest ordinate CG, or the two LM, NF, with the least IG, the abscissæ AD, AE, or HL, HN, shall become equal in respect of the axis HK. Therefore, when the ordinate is the greatest or the least, the equation of the curve, disposed according to the letter which expresses the abscissæ, ought to have two equal roots. To determine which, there is to be formed an equation of two equal roots, for example, $xx - 2ex + ee = 0$, which is the product of $x - e$ into $x - e$; and let the curve whose

whose greatest or least ordinates are required, be the ellipsis $xx - 2ax + \frac{2ayy}{p} = 0$, for example, the abscisses being taken from the vertex. Let this equation be compared, term by term, with the equation formed from two equal roots, in the following manner: $xx - 2ax + \frac{2ayy}{p} = 0$.

$$xx - 2ex + ee = 0.$$

From the comparison of the second terms, we find $a = e$; but e is the root of the equation $xx - 2ex + ee = 0$, and therefore $e = x$, and also $a = x$; and because x is already determined, the comparison of the last terms will be superfluous. Wherefore, taking $x = a$, the corresponding ordinate in the ellipsis will be the greatest, as is already known, it being then half the conjugate axis.

But if the equation of the curve had been of the third, fourth, or higher degree, that we might make the comparison, it would be necessary that the equation of two equal roots, $xx - 2ex + ee = 0$, should be reduced to the same degree as is the equation proposed, by multiplying it by so many roots, whatever they may be, as there may be occasion for. Let the curve belong to this equation of the third degree, $x^3 * - axy + y^3 = 0$, (the asterisk $*$ is put in the place of the second term which is wanting, and which should always be done, as often as any term is absent,) of which we require the greatest ordinate. Therefore I multiply the equation $xx - 2ex + ee = 0$ by $x - f = 0$, and compare the product with the equation proposed, $x^3 * - axy + y^3 = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} x^3 - 2ex^2 + eex - eef &= 0. \\ -fx^2 + 2efx & \end{aligned}$$

From the comparison of the second terms, I find $-2e - f = 0$, and therefore $f = -2e$. From the comparison of the third, I find $2ef + ee = -ay$, and substituting the value of f , it is $-3ee = -ay$. But $e = x$, therefore $y = \frac{3xx}{a}$. Instead of y , if we substitute this value in the equation of the curve, it will give us $x = \frac{\sqrt[3]{2a^3}}{3}$, to which corresponds the greatest ordinate y , which will be $\frac{a \times 2^{\frac{2}{3}}}{3}$, or $\frac{\sqrt[3]{4a^3}}{3}$.

269. But, without comparing the given equation with another, which contains two equal roots, to satisfy the condition of the Problem, it will be sufficient to multiply it, term by term, by any arithmetical progression. For, if the equation has two equal roots, as it ought to have in the case of a *maximum* or *minimum*, one of those roots will also, of necessity, be included in the product of that equation multiplied by the arithmetical progression. Whence, by thus multiplying the equation, the condition will be included, under which the value of

To find the same by multiplying by an arithmetical progression.

of the absciss will be found, to which the greatest or least ordinate corresponds. Now, to demonstrate this, let the equation of the two equal roots be in general this, $xx - 2bx + bb = 0$, which let be multiplied by the arithmetical progression $a, a + b, a + 2b$, and the product will be $axx - 2abx + abb = 0$.
 $- 2bbx + 2bbb$

In this substitute the quantity b instead of x , and all the terms will destroy one another. Or else, dividing it by $x - b$, the division will succeed. Therefore $x - b$ will be one root of that product, as it is of $xx - 2bx + bb = 0$. The same will obtain if the arithmetical progression be decreasing, as $a, a - b, a - 2b, a - 3b$, &c.

Now, because the equation of the two equal roots is general, and the arithmetical progression $a, a + b, a + 2b$, &c. is general also, it will always be true, that when an equation of two equal roots is multiplied, term by term, by any arithmetical progression, the product will be divisible by one of those roots. For the same reason, if an equation shall have three equal roots, and be multiplied by an arithmetical progression, the product will have two of those equal roots. And if this product be multiplied again by an arithmetical progression, the new product will have one of those roots. And so we may go on to superior equations.

I resume the equation to the ellipsis $xx - 2ax + \frac{2ayy}{p} = 0$, which I multiply by the progression $2, 1, 0$.

$$xx - 2ax + \frac{2ayy}{p} = 0.$$

$$2, \quad 1, \quad 0.$$

The product is $2xx - 2ax = 0$, which gives $x = a$, as is found above. I multiply the same equation by another arithmetical progression, $3, 2, 1$,

$$xx - 2ax + \frac{2ayy}{p} = 0$$

$$3, \quad 2, \quad 1,$$

The product is $3xx - 4ax + \frac{2ayy}{p} = 0$, in which, instead of yy , I substitute it's value, $\frac{2ax - xx}{\frac{p}{2a}} \times \frac{p}{2a}$, given from the equation of the curve, and find $x = a$, as before.

I take the second equation above, $x^3 - axy + y^3 = 0$, and multiply it by the progression $3, 2, 1, 0$,

$$x^3 - axy + y^3 = 0,$$

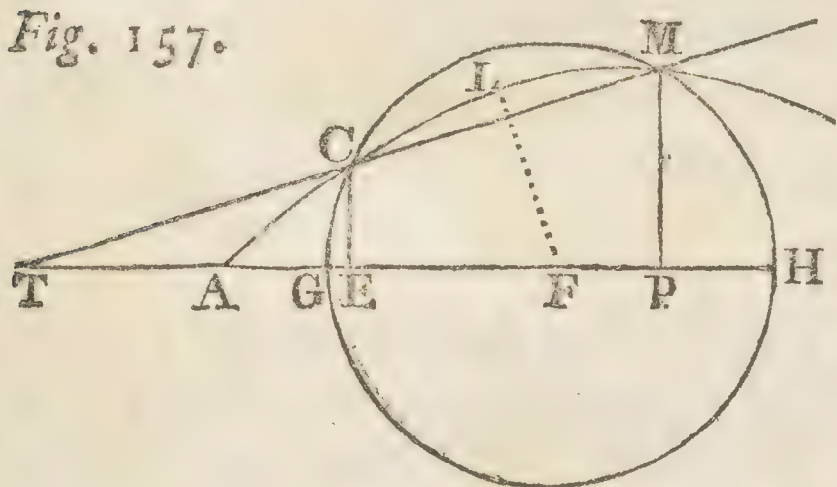
$$3, \quad 2, \quad 1, \quad 0,$$

The product is $3x^3 - axy = 0$, or $3x^2 = ay$, as before.

270. By a like method may be found the tangents and perpendiculars to curves in any given points. Tangents and perpendiculars, how found.

The question is reduced to this; to find a circle that shall touch the curve in this point. For, in this case, the tangent of the circle in this point, as also the perpendicular or radius, will be in common to the curve also in the same point.

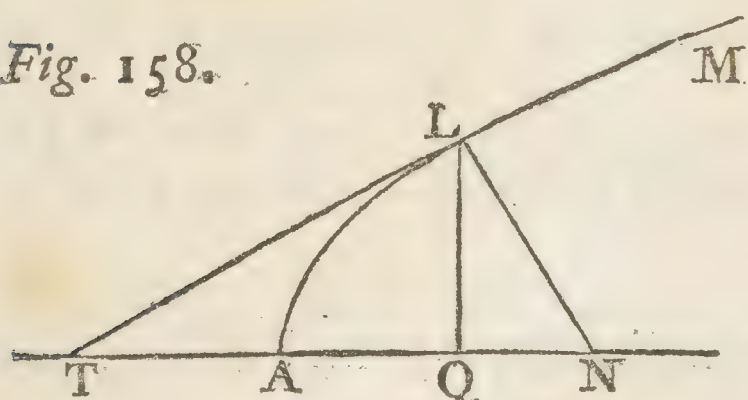
Fig. 157.



Let the curve be ACM, of which we desire the tangent at the point L; and let the circle be GMH, which cuts it in the two points M, C. Drawing the two ordinates CE, MP, and the right line MCT, through the points M, C, it will cut the curve also in the points M, C. But the nearer these points shall approach to each other, the less always will be the difference of the ordinates CE, MP, and

also of the abscisses AE, AP; so that when the two points coincide, for example at L, they will make the values equal of these ordinates, or of these abscisses; and then the circle will touch the curve in the point L. (Except when the curve and the circle are of equal curvature; for, in this case, the circle will both cut and touch the curve in the same point, as will be seen in the Differential Calculus.) The right line MT shall be a tangent both to the curve and the circle in the same point L; as also, FL will be a common perpendicular.

Fig. 158.



Therefore, in the curve ALM, make $AQ = x$, $QL = y$, and from the given point L drawing the right line LN, which we suppose to be perpendicular to the curve, and consequently to the tangent at L; make $LN = s$, $AN = u$, and it will be $QN = u - x$. Then the right-angled triangle QLN will give the canonical equation $ss = uu - 2ux$

$+ xx + yy$, from which we are to have the value of y , or of x , and to substitute it in the equation of the given curve; by means of which we must have the value of s , or of u , considering x or y as given, because we assume the point L as given.

Let the curve ALM, for example, be the *Apollonian* parabola of the equation $ax = yy$. Instead of yy , make a substitution of it's value given by the canonical equation, and we shall have $ax = ss - uu + 2ux - xx$; which being ordered according to the letter x , will be $xx - 2ux + uu = 0$. This equation, there-

$$+ ax - ss$$

fore, ought to have two equal roots when the right line $LN = s$ is perpendicular to.

to the parabola in the point L, that is, in the case of a tangent. Therefore, the value of the indeterminate $AN = u$ being found, on the hypothesis of two equal roots, we shall have the point N, from whence drawing NL to the given point L, and LT perpendicular to NL, that shall be the tangent required.

Now, to determine the unknown quantity u on the supposition of two equal roots; I compare the equation, term by term, with one of two equal roots, that is, with $xx - 2ex + ee = 0$, after the following manner:

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} xx - 2ux + uu \\ + ax - ss \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

$$xx - 2ex + ee = 0.$$

Now, from the comparison of the second terms, we shall have $-2u + a = -2e$, or $u = \frac{1}{2}a + e$. But $e = x$, by the equation $xx - 2ex + ee = 0$. Therefore $u = \frac{1}{2}a + x$. Wherefore, from the point Q, taking $QN = \frac{1}{2}a$, NL will be the perpendicular, and LT, perpendicular to it, will be the tangent to the curve in the point L.

Instead of comparing the said equation with one of two equal roots, it may be multiplied by this arithmetical progression 3, 2, 1, thus:

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} xx - 2ux + uu \\ + ax - ss \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

3, 2, 1,

The product is $\left. \begin{array}{r} 3xx - 4ux + uu \\ + 2ax - ss \end{array} \right\} = 0$. But $ss = uu - 2ux + xx + yy$; and, by the parabola, it is $yy = ax$; whence $ss = uu - 2ux + xx + ax$. Substituting, therefore, this value instead of ss , it will be $2xx - 2ux + ax = 0$. That is, $u = \frac{1}{2}a + x$, as before.

We might have had our desire more compendiously, by multiplying the equation by this arithmetical progression, 2, 1, 0.

Example.

271. Let the curve be the second cubical parabola $x^3 = ayy$. Making the substitution of the value of yy , derived from the canonical equation, there arises the equation $x^3 + ax^2 - 2aux + auu = 0$, which, because it is of the third

degree, must be compared with the product of the equation $xx - 2ex + ee = 0$ into $x - f = 0$; thus, $\left. \begin{array}{r} x^3 + ax^2 - 2aux + auu \\ - ass \end{array} \right\} = 0.$

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} x^3 - 2ex^2 + eex - eef \\ - fx^2 + 2efx \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

By

By comparing the second terms, we have $-2e - f = a$, that is, $f = -a - 2e$. From the comparison of the third, it is $ee + 2ef = -2au$; and putting the value of f now found, it is $u = \frac{3ee + 2ae}{2a}$, that is, $u = \frac{3xx + 2ax}{2a}$, because $e = x$.

Now I shall multiply the equation by the arithmetical progression 3, 2, 1, 0,

$$\left. \begin{array}{r} x^3 + ax^2 - 2aux + auu \\ - ass \end{array} \right\} = 0,$$

$$3, \quad 2, \quad 1, \quad 0,$$

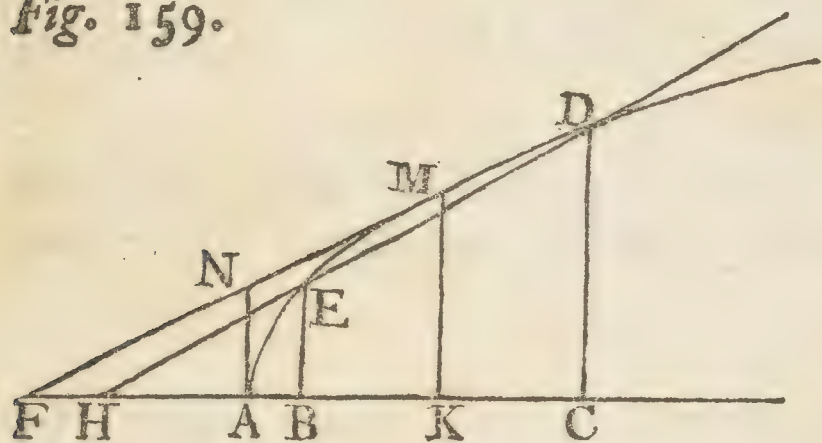
The product is $3x^3 + 2ax^2 - 2aux = 0$, and therefore, in like manner,

$$u = \frac{3xx + 2ax}{2a}.$$

272. Concerning the choice of a proper arithmetical progression, it may be observed, that, generally, that will be the most convenient, which forms the exponents, beginning with the greatest index of that letter according to which the equation is ordered. How to choose a progression.

273. Another manner of solving this Problem may be this, which is something different, but perhaps more simple, and which will be of use in contrary flexures and regressions. This Problem solved another way.

Fig. 159.



Let the curve AEMD be cut by the right line HED in the points E, D; and make the abscisses AB or AC = x , the ordinates BE or CD = y . It is plain that the right line HD going on to be the tangent FM of the curve in the point M, the two points E, D, will coincide in M, and consequently will make the two lines AB, AC, equal to each other, as also the two lines

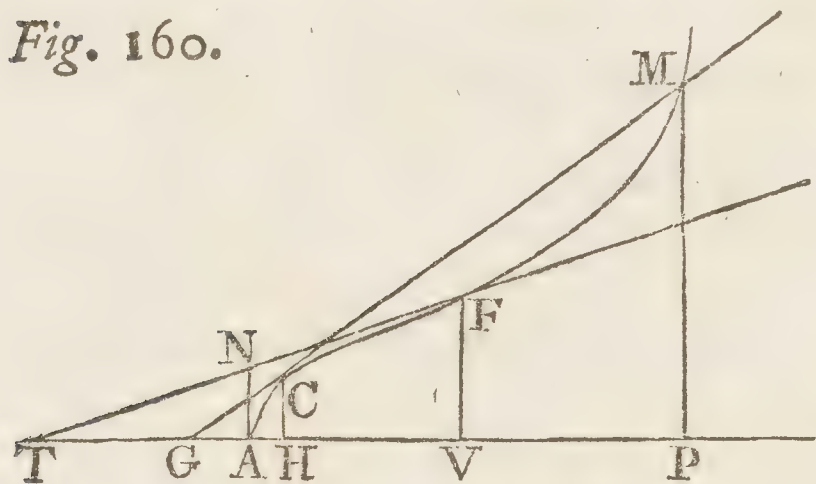
BE, CD. Draw AN parallel to the ordinates, and make AF = u , AN = s . By the similar triangles FAN, FKM, it will be $u : s :: u + x : y$; that is, $y = \frac{us + sx}{u}$, and $x = \frac{uy - us}{s}$. In the equation of the given curve, substitute

these values instead of y or x , and another equation will arise from hence, which will have two equal roots, since AF, AN, are such, as that the right line FNM touches the curve. Therefore, making a comparison with another of two equal roots, or multiplying it by an arithmetical progression, we shall have the value of AF or AN required; and one being given, the other will also be given. I forbear Examples, because the manner of operation is the same as that used before.

274. As the nature of *maxima* and *minima*, and likewise of tangents, necessarily requires equations of two equal roots, so, in contrary flexures and regressions, Points of contrary flexure and regression, what, and how found.

gressions, three equal roots are required. By contrary flexure is meant that point, in which from concave the curve becomes convex, or the contrary; and by regression is meant that point in which the curve turns directly back again, whether concave or convex.

Fig. 160.

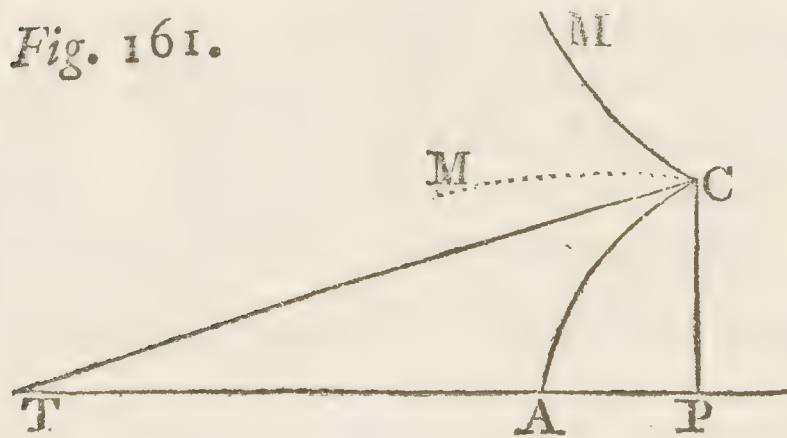


Let the curve be ACFM, which has a contrary flexure in the point F, and let be drawn the right line GCM, which touches it in the point C, and cuts it in the point M; from which draw the ordinates CH, MP. It is easy to perceive, that the more the point C of the tangent shall approach to the point F of contrary flexure, so much the more also the point M shall approach

to the point F; so that when the point C falls in with F, the point M will also fall in with it; and consequently AH, AP, will become equal, as also CH, MP, and the right line GCM will both touch and cut the curve in the point F. But the nature of the tangent already requires two equal roots, and now they are joined by a third; so that the property of contrary flexure is such, that three equal roots are corresponding to it.

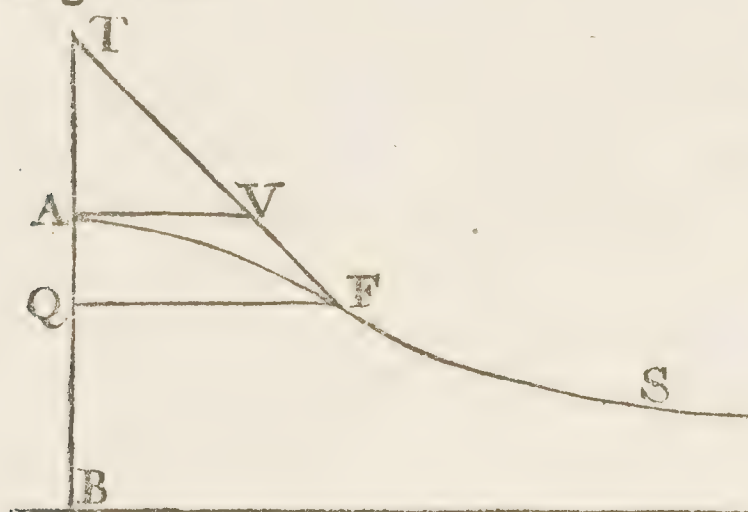
From the point A drawing AN parallel to the ordinates, and making $AN = s$, $AT = u$, and drawing TNF; because of similar triangles TAN, TVF, it will be $y = \frac{us + sx}{u}$, and $x = \frac{uy - us}{s}$, making $VA = x$, and $VF = y$. Wherefore, substituting these values of x or y in the equation of the given curve, the equation that arises ought to have three equal roots, when AT or AN are such that TNF, drawn from the point T through the point N, may meet the curve in F, the point of contrary flexure required.

Fig. 161.



In like manner we may reason about the curve ACM, which has a regression in the point C. For the tangent TC of the curve in the point C, will also cut it in the same point; and thence the three equal roots will arise after the same manner.

Fig. 162.



Let AFS be the curve of the equation $ayy - xyy - aax = 0$, in which are $AQ = x$, and $QF = y$; and let the point F of contrary flexure be required. Make $AT = u$, $AV = s$, and QF parallel to the ordinates. Now, instead of x , substituting its value $\frac{uy - us}{s}$, in the equation of the curve, it will be

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} y^3 - \frac{asyy}{u} + aayy - aas \\ - syy \end{array} \right\} = 0.$$

This equation ought to have three equal roots, and therefore we must compare it with an equation of three equal roots; or else multiply it by two arithmetical progressions.

Let us multiply it, therefore, by the progression 1, 0, — 1, — 2, and the product will be $y^3 * - aay + 2a^2s = 0$. Multiply it again by the progression 3, 2, 1, 0, which will give us $3y^3 - aay = 0$, and therefore $yy = \frac{1}{3}aa$. This value, being substituted in the equation of the given curve, will lastly produce $x = \frac{1}{4}a$.

275. The manner is the same for finding the regreffions of curves, and this method is applicable to both. So that, to distinguish them, there is no other way, but to find, by means of a construction, the figure and proceeding of the curve.

To distinguish contrary flexures from regreffions, and maxima from minima.

The same ambiguity arises in questions *de maximis et minimis*, which only can be removed by acquiring some knowledge of the disposition of the curve. By the same condition of three equal roots we may find the *Radii* of Curvature; but as I shall further treat of such things in the following Volume, not to be too tedious, I shall here put an end to this.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

I vol: xxvii, xlvi, 1 f; 251 pp. - [manca il primo foglio]
figure nel testo

II vol: 2 ff; 371 pp. -

FM.

